OE FORM 6000, 2/69

DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

ERIC REPORT RESUME

ERIC ACC. NO. ED 039 372			
CH ACC. NO. AA 000 550 ,	P.A.	PUBL. DATE '56	ISSUE RIEOCT70

IS DOCUMENT COPYRIGHTED? YES ☒ NO ☐
ERIC REPRODUCTION RELEASE? YES ☒ NO ☐
LEVEL OF AVAILABILITY I ☒ II ☐ III ☐

AUTHOR
Cottrell, Donald P., Ed.

TITLE
Teacher Education for a Free People.

SOURCE CODE
FGK01575

INSTITUTION (SOURCE)
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education,
Washington, D.C.

SP. AG. CODE

SPONSORING AGENCY

EDRS PRICE
1.75;21.25

CONTRACT NO.

GRANT NO.

REPORT NO.

BUREAU NO.

AVAILABILITY

JOURNAL CITATION

DESCRIPTIVE NOTE
423p.

DESCRIPTORS
*Teacher Education; Teacher Role; *Teacher Education Curriculum; Teacher Educators; Educational History; Field Experience Programs; Academic Education; Sequential Programs; Student Personnel Work; Educational Administration; Methods Courses; *Teachers Colleges; College Role; *Democratic Values; *Educational Objectives; Curriculum Development; Educational Trends; School Role

IDENTIFIERS

ABSTRACT

Information obtained during a survey of member institutions of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is the basis for this book. It is divided into eleven chapters, each dealing with one aspect of teacher education. Chapter I discusses the role of education and of teachers in a democratic society. Chapter II presents a history of teacher education in the United States and contrasts its pre-World War I status with its present status. Chapter III discusses the goals of teacher education and the development of a curriculum related to these goals. Chapters IV, V, and VI are concerned with the three parts of the teacher education program--academic education, professional education, and field experience programs--and Chapter VII discusses the organization of these three parts into a sequential program. Chapter VIII is concerned with the role of the teacher educator and his obligation to meet the individual needs of teacher trainees. Chapter IX points out the importance of student personnel work in teacher education programs and develops guidelines for inservice training of student personnel workers. Chapter X is concerned with the administration of teacher education and student participation. Finally, Chapter XI develops some ideas for future development of teacher education, based on trends noted in the preceding chapters. (RT)

GPO 870-390

ED 039 372

TEACHER EDUCATION FOR A FREE PEOPLE

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AA 000 550

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES FOR
TEACHER EDUCATION · ONEONTA, NEW YORK
1956

Copyright, 1956, by
The American Association of Colleges
for Teacher Education
11 Elm Street, Oneonta, N. Y.

Printed in the United States of America

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 56-6917

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PREFACE

The idea for this book originated in the institutional self-study program of The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, which was conducted during the three years, 1952, 1953, and 1954. In that program the Association provided a team of teacher education leaders to visit each member institution for the primary purpose of assisting that institution in an evaluation and in planning for the improvement of its work in the future. Reports of the visiting teams proved to be a valuable resource for anyone interested in studying current trends and problems in teacher education and suggested the need for a careful interpretation of the overall situation as a guide to future efforts. The Association, through its Committee on Studies and Standards, determined to make such an interpretive study and to publish the result as fully as possible in a single volume.

The purpose of the Association in this effort is to make available something of what has been learned through widespread evaluation and deliberate planning for teacher education at the institutional level. In order to pursue that purpose the Committee on Studies and Standards created a subcommittee to select a panel of writers and consultants and to have general advisory charge of the writing and publication of the book. The subcommittee consisted of Dr. Charles W. Hunt, Dr. Edward S. Evenden, Dr. Edward C. Pomeroy, Dean Wendell W. Wright, and Dean Donald P. Cottrell, Chairman. The general scope and character of the project were determined and the writers were engaged by the subcommittee. The original writing assignments were as follows: Dr. Charles W. Hunt (with Professor Russell M. Cooper later added) for the historical and social setting of teacher education; Professor Florence B. Stratemeyer for the curriculum and teaching programs of teacher education institutions; Professor Donald M. Sharpe for the student field laboratory experience part of the teacher education program; Professor Jack Shaw for the student personnel program of teacher education institutions; and the late President Roben J. Maaske for the administration of teacher education institutions. The untimely death of President

Maaske, after he had prepared only a first draft of his material, made it necessary for someone else to assume final responsibility for the writing of this portion of the book. Dean Wright and the Editor have done so. After discussion with the writers, the subcommittee engaged a supplementary panel of consultants, upon nomination by the writers, as follows: Professor Russell M. Cooper for the portion of the book dealing with the historical and social setting; Professor William A. Fullagar and Professor Camilla M. Low for the chapters on curriculum (with Miss Gertrude Braun as an assistant); Professor Shirley H. Engle for the chapter on field laboratory experiences; and Professor William H. Edson for the chapter on the student personnel program.

The full group of advisory committee members, writers, and consultants held two extended conferences, one at the Association offices in Oneonta, New York, and one in New York City, for the purpose of planning and developing the manuscripts. They also exchanged papers several times for criticism by mail. As it turned out, the consultants participated actively in drafting and revising manuscripts and the entire group cut across the original lines of assigned areas for review of the content and form of the written materials. While the assigned writers retain responsibility for the printed manuscripts, as noted in the footnotes to the chapter titles, the book as a whole is truly a product of the co-operative effort of the entire group. After the principal manuscripts had taken shape, it became evident that a final chapter for the book was needed and an editing of the entire book would have to be done by some one person. These latter responsibilities were given to the chairman of the subcommittee. Professor Manuel Barkan of the School of Fine and Applied Arts, the Ohio State University, kindly assisted in the design of the printing and layout of the book.

The writers of this book speak for the Association only in the sense that they were chosen for the work from the field of leaders in teacher education and were known to have distinguished themselves in some measure as experts in their several professional fields of activity. The book is their own product, however, and they have been under no dictation from the Association, nor do they wish to share with anyone or any group the responsibility for what they have written. They were commissioned by the Association to write something of what they know and believe about policies and procedures of teacher education today and that is what they have done. They have tried to write in such a way as to enlist the interest and attention of both professional educators and lay community leaders who are concerned with improving the quality of the teaching staffs of schools in the years immediately ahead.

To see the work of a college for teacher education in its full significance, the authors may at times have unbridled their enthusiasms as to what such a college should try to accomplish. It seems very clear, however, that vast frontiers yet remain to be crossed in the education of teachers, even though the record to date is truly impressive. The sage observer will always remember that colleges fill each new class with eighteen-year-olds and only in a secondary and derivative way are responsible for the education of their students prior to that age. What colleges can accomplish has such a limit, even if there remains plenty of room for students to grow during their collegiate years and for colleges to facilitate that growth in new and better ways than have previously been used.

The reader will find frequent reference in this book to the education of children. Almost always, as will be evident in the context, this reference may be understood to include youth as well, and frequently what has been said would apply equally to the education of adults. The tediousness of constant repetition of "children, youth, and adults," however, led the authors generally to use the more limited phrasing.

The authors hope that it will be recognized that they have not intended to draw a complete blueprint for the institutional program of teacher education in the future. The design of this book is one to suggest principles, policies, and possible concrete programs deemed worthy of consideration and investigation with respect to their applicability in particular situations. The assumption of the authors has been that faculties and other interested groups will make their own programs as they deem wise. If the book is helpful to such groups in dealing with their responsibilities, the mission will have been accomplished.

DONALD P. COTTRELL

Columbus, Ohio
June, 1955

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1

TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN SCENE *

If you would know a culture, look at its schools. Every society has concern for its young, and schools measure the character of that concern. They measure also the people's hope for the future.

This principle applies to retarded countries as well as to the most advanced. In areas where there has been little social or intellectual progress during the past century the schools reflect a static condition. Buildings are poor, appropriations are small, and most children drop out during elementary years. The educational system reflects the general impoverishment of the area and helps to maintain it.

The totalitarian states have dramatically demonstrated the crucial relation of education to the social system. When Mussolini marched on Rome in 1922 and when Hitler assumed power in 1933, among their first acts was a move to reorganize the educational system. Children had to be molded for the strict discipline of the military state. They must be strong in body, efficient in vocational skills, and unquestioningly obedient to their masters. For the totalitarian purpose the fascist educational system made sense even though it fostered the same lack of imagination, the poverty of independent creativity and tolerance which many believe must ultimately spell the doom of any totalitarian system.

Likewise in America, the schools are the embodiment of the American dream. The principle that "all men are created equal" is reflected in our determination that every child shall have an opportunity for education, regardless of race, creed, or economic condition. Our emphasis upon human dignity and freedom rejects both the authoritarian bureaucrat and the domineering school-

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* This chapter was prepared by Professor Russell M. Cooper, Assistant Dean, College of Science, Literature, and the Arts, University of Minnesota.

master. Our recognition of the sacred right of men to be different from their fellows and to pursue happiness in their own way is inevitably reflected in schools that recognize individual pupil differences. Our concern that citizens assume constructive community responsibilities results in schools where children are encouraged to take initiative and work with others under guidance on projects of their own devising.

While the democratization of America's schools inevitably parallels the growth of democracy in general society, it does not come easily. At every step and from every side has come criticism as well as encouragement. Many taxpayers have complained at the costs of universal education. Disciplinarians have argued that freedom in the classroom would soon become license. Even yet, despite court decisions on segregation, there are those who oppose equal educational opportunity for all races and communities. Nevertheless, the democratic trend moves steadily forward, reflecting ideals of the American tradition and preparing young people to assume their responsible roles in years ahead.

Clearly most people have supported the movement. They have sent their children to school in increasing numbers—95 per cent of the youth between ages six and eighteen are now in school. And they have taxed themselves to pay the bill—public school budgets increased from one billion dollars in 1920 to six and one-half billion dollars in 1950. With swelling enrollments and heavier fiscal pressures, there is evidence that the people will support their schools still more.

When criticism of new developments in education has been well meaning and constructive, it has enabled teachers to discover flaws and redirect efforts in more promising directions. Indeed, the American system itself is one of enterprise and experimentation: outmoded patterns are discarded but new proposals are examined critically before their general adoption. The interaction of liberal and conservative, of prophet and priest, is essential for the orderly development of any social institution.

Because of their spirit of democratic pioneering, America's schools are on trial before the world. Increasing numbers of educators travel to America from all parts of the globe to study the curriculum and instructional practices of our schools and to take home reports, both good and bad, of what they have seen. In recent years approximately 34,000 foreign students and teachers are studying in America each year, many of them focusing especially on education. Some have expressed alarm at the seeming superficiality, the departure from classical subjects, the lack of "discipline." Others have been eulogistic in their praise and have gone home to advocate rapid transformation to the American plan.

Their varied reactions of course reflect in part the vast diversity in type and development among the schools themselves. In any case, the American schools are under scrutiny both at home and abroad. If the American experiment in democratic education moves forward successfully, it will strike a telling blow for democracy around the world. If the program fails, effects will be equally decisive.

Mankind at this juncture appears balanced precariously between faith in man's spirit and faith in brute strength. The mighty atomic forces now unleashed can clearly destroy man or help raise him to heights yet undreamed. With scientific and social changes progressing even faster in the second half of the twentieth century than in the first, not only is a new day being created but also a new man is being demanded—a man equipped for technological understanding, constructive social interaction, and creative leisure—a master of nature and self. Prophetic education must keep pace with the new demands. It is a co-operative venture challenging the best leadership of all nations.

Americans sent recently to aid in Germany, Japan, Thailand, the Philippines, Korea, Turkey, and elsewhere have reported a determined striving there to supplant obsolete authoritarian schools with new ones democratically and uniquely serving the people. Educational leaders overseas likewise have much to share. American education has become partner in a world-wide movement to prepare man for the fateful challenge of our age. Will it do the job adequately? Can it do it in time?

What Does Democracy Demand of the Schools?

As the American people become clearer in their understanding of democratic principles and more determined to achieve them, their demands on the schools become more concrete and imperative. Such demands reflect both the social problems of today and the anticipated needs of tomorrow. The precise nature of these requirements will vary from community to community and from pupil to pupil, but certain basic functions are becoming common to schools generally throughout the country. At least five of these demands are so persistent and compelling that they require special mention.

First, the school must help the child achieve the traditional fundamentals of reading, writing, and arithmetic while yet meeting the new imperatives. The ability to communicate with one's fellows is basic to any form of community and especially to the co-operative relationships inherent in a democracy. For a time, vociferous critics bitterly condemned the schools for neglecting the three R's, alleging that children are less proficient than in generations past. Such complaints, however, have been largely quieted in recent years as overwhelming evidence has demonstrated that the allegation simply isn't so.

New methods of teaching reading have not only stepped up markedly the child's ability to read quickly and understandingly but, even more, they have stimulated his desire to read. Despite the competition of motion pictures, television, and other activities, children are reading more and better material today than ever before and apparently with greater comprehension.[1] Even so, the reading ability of high-school graduates is still inadequate for today's world and the schools are understandably devoting continued attention to the perfection of reading skills and habits. With increased social complexity and expanding publications, efficient communication through reading becomes ever more urgent and former standards of competence will no longer suffice.

The charge that many high-school students cannot express themselves well in writing probably has greater validity than that concerning their reading. Apparently the pressure of large classes has made it impossible in many schools to require extensive written expression by the pupils, and without constant purposeful practice ready proficiency becomes impossible. Even here, however, it is doubtful whether the schools have retrogressed in recent years; rather this is a continuing need to which they must give unremitting attention.

Emphasis upon arithmetic has increased greatly since World War II, and ways are being found to relate the meaning of computational processes to the specific skills acquired. In a technological society, mathematics is important for the layman as well as the engineer. Almost every field of study now employs statistical analysis, for example, and the ordinary citizen is called upon to interpret cost-of-living indices, simple correlations, and graphs. H. G. Wells' prophecy of many years ago is today proving true: "Statistical thinking will one day be as necessary for efficient citizenship as the ability to read and write." Such basic mathematical competencies must continue to be a heavy charge upon the schools.

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[1] For further information see, for example: Research Division of NEA, "Children's Achievement Today and Yesterday," mimeographed April, 1951; and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *The Three R's in the Elementary School.* Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1952.

Second, society demands that schools help pupils achieve a basis for democratic citizenship. The child must understand the meaning of the American way, the struggle and suffering which have produced it, and its strengths and weaknesses as compared with alternative social systems. This involves not only an honest understanding of American political and social history, but also familiarity with contemporary institutions. The child must understand the goals of the American dream and make them his own.

To be a good citizen, however, one must not only understand the goals of democracy but the processes as well. He must realize the problems still confronting America and the ways in which politics, business, and other social institutions are working actively toward their solution. He must understand how our government operates, the nature of the state and national system, the purpose of the separations of powers, the role of political parties, and the responsibility of the voter. He must understand something of economics, the cause and character of business cycles, the determination of prices, the effect of the tax structure, and the respective roles of labor and management. He must be conversant with the social implications of crime, race prejudice, poverty, and disease. He must understand America's new responsibilities as a world power, her relation to the United Nations, and the factors making for peace and war in the modern world.

Only with such insights can the young citizen hope to make responsible judgments concerning the future policies of the American nation. Without a citizenry thus equipped the nation cannot hope to make and support wise decisions, and the inept handling of crucial problems will almost inevitably lead eventually to reliance upon some authority who claims to have the answers. As President Eisenhower recently declared, "Without education free government cannot survive; without democracy education loses its significance."

But even these insights are not enough for preparing the good citizen. In addition to social understandings he must also develop social skills. He must learn to work co-operatively with a group, to assume leadership when necessary, to be tolerant of contrary opinions and yet courageous in presenting his own. He must develop while yet in school the habit of seeking facts before forming an opinion, and he must learn through experience the manner in which democratic high-minded people work together in resolving their problems. Habits thus acquired can be expected to carry over into the still more complex citizenship activities of the community and the nation. Without such habits the best of intentions and the wisest of insights may yet leave him sterile in these citizenship responsibilities.

Third, the school must help the child achieve maturity in personal adjustment. This does not imply molding him into the same pattern as that of other children—indeed he will be encouraged to emphasize his own unique abilities—but he must grow in self-understanding and self-control. He must gain the confidence that can come only through overt achievement, and he must develop a sense of responsibility to match his new freedoms.

A century ago, the child's personal development was essentially a problem of the home and immediate community. But with the growing urbanization and commercialization of life, many homes today fail to give children the sense of security they need. With both parents working, brothers and sisters pursuing their individual interests, and the friends of each child frequently unknown to others of his own family, it has become difficult for many families to assume the character-building function of former years. The child often develops his standards of honesty, sex-behavior, and group loyalty from his friends of the street rather than the precepts of the well-balanced home. While the church, the Boy Scouts, and other groups continue to render invaluable service in character development, an increasing responsibility for the child's adjustment seems to be falling upon the school.

For large numbers of children the school is the agency with which the individual has most continuous contact. It gives him the opportunity for wholesome association with other children of his age working toward common goals. It gives him a chance to try out his leadership qualities and to knock off the rough edges of his personality. It gives him a feeling of "belonging," helps to satisfy his need for recognition and security.

Such growth toward wholesome maturity does not, however, come automatically. Group participation and leadership are possible only when the classroom is organized to permit group activity. Acceptance of constructive values comes only as problems involving value judgments are continually brought forth for consideration and the child is impelled to think through for himself the implications of various standards of conduct. Children with especially difficult adjustment problems, perhaps ostracized by their fellows and developing offensive behavior traits, may require the help of a skilled, sympathetic counselor as well as a resourceful teacher.

Perhaps the most important single thing that a child can learn is to be a self-respecting, responsible person. It would be catastrophic indeed if the schools turned out graduates who were intellectually competent but emotionally disturbed, educated as much for antisocial as for constructive behavior. It is inevitable that society will require the schools to give continued attention to the child's personal adjustment and well-being.

Fourth, the school must continue to reflect and enrich the aesthetic values of our culture. Not only must it acquaint youth with social values, institutions, and processes, but it has a special responsibility to develop cultural interests in the more limited aesthetic sense. Through the centuries the race has been blessed with creations of great beauty and power. Literary masterpieces have stirred the emotions of men and illuminated the meaning of life. Great productions of art and music have been created to lend insight and sparkle to man's existence. It is a wondrous heritage, flowing from all ages and from all corners of the globe, to be the possession of the rising generation if it will but embrace it.

Unfortunately such heritage is not automatically appreciated. The taste for good art and literature develops through contact and understanding. To appropriate these treasures requires effort—and millions of people have never felt them worth the effort. Such values, therefore, long remained the possession of the more educated and privileged few. With the coming of mass media and more leisure, however, even the enjoyments of the few are increasingly dictated by the general population. Radio and television programs keep an eye on the Hooper Ratings, motion picture producers watch box-office receipts, publishers must print what will sell. In a manner never before known in history, the quality of American culture is being influenced by the taste of the masses. How important it is, therefore, not only to the personal enjoyment of these millions of people but also to the future of America's cultural development, that this taste be discriminating.

While the mass agencies themselves can do much to improve the tastes of their audience, a major responsibility will remain with the schools. It is here that the child often gets his first contact with good literature and art and develops an emotional attitude of rejection or acceptance. It is here that he forms his first judgment as to whether such materials can add pleasure to his own life or whether they are esoteric trivia designed for snobbish persons who have never grappled with such red-blooded heroes as the Lone Ranger.

Schools have long known that one of the best ways to develop appreciation of the arts is through active participation in them. The modern high-school orchestra and choir, the dramatic club, the art class—all play their part in development of genuine enjoyment as well as of high standards of performance. Through educational television, the schools and mass media may come closer together in their endeavor to elevate the taste of the people. The school must inevitably be an essential partner in the enterprise.

Fifth, society expects the schools to foster occupational readiness among their pupils. While the number of high-school graduates going on to college is steadily increasing, the majority still terminate their formal education with the twelfth year or before. These students, boys and girls alike, want a job. They want a steady income with promise of promotion that will enable them to get married and rear families. They want a chance, if possible, to apply and confirm some of the abilities they have been developing during school years. These are laudable purposes, in complete harmony with the liberal tradition.

High-school graduates tend to enter unskilled and semi-skilled positions for which specialized training is unnecessary. While some vocational schools turn out young people prepared for skilled trades, most high-school graduates must expect to learn their skills on the job. And organized business is becoming increasingly active in fostering effective job-training programs. What employers ask of the schools is training in basic communication skills, habits of application, and sense of responsibility. It is important that the young employee be dependable and punctual, be able to get along well with his fellow workers, and take a constructive interest in the welfare of the organization. In considerable measure, these are traits discussed above and are equally applicable on the job or in other social groups.

Part of the student's job readiness lies in his initial vocational choice. At this point the school can be very helpful in enabling the student to know what his strengths and weaknesses are, the opportunities and hazards of various lines of endeavor, and the occupational choice that would seem particularly appropriate for him. Schools can make an important contribution toward getting round pegs fitted into round occupational holes, thus contributing immeasurably to the personal happiness of the individual as well as to the satisfaction of the employer. Such aid is particularly needed in America where children are not held to their father's vocation but must choose from a wide variety of opportunities in a shifting and fast developing economy.

Nature of the Competence Required

While society places many demands on the schools, as noted in the previous section, it is not content that the pupil shall simply have contact with the various aspects of living. It insists upon competence as well. The child must actually use good English, not merely know the rules. He must demonstrate in his daily life strong qualities of citizenship, personal adjustment, cultural interest, and occupational readiness, and not merely be content with knowledge about such matters. He must assume a conscious and constructive place in the total culture. He must not only possess an education, he must embody it.

We are here concerned with the qualitative aspect of the school experience as distinguished from the substantive. What is the nature of the competence toward which the school should strive? How do we know when we have it? Different people may define these qualities differently but these factors would appear indispensable:

1. In the manifold aspects of living, the student must be capable of sound judgment. Such judgment can result only from the wise blending of three constituents: facts, reasoning, and values.

Clearly he cannot reason without factual raw materials, the bricks and mortar with which a logical structure is built. Some of these facts, a very few, should be memorized and made the permanent and readily usable possession of each student. Such dates as 1492, 1776, and 1914 are landmarks that give Americans organization and meaning to vast quantities of experience. Yet, more important than the memorization of a few landmarks in every field is the need for knowing where to find accurate up-to-date data when needed. The student must be taught a respect for facts, taught that his ultimate generalizations must be consistent with them, and he must understand something of the process by which new information is discovered. It requires a wise teacher to help a student distinguish the essential facts from the less important, to help him become familiar with adult sources of information he can readily consult for the rest of his life, and to develop discrimination between the reliable and the dubious.

With reliable information at hand, the pupil must be taught to reason logically and objectively toward a generalization. He must know the difference between a fact and an inference, between a manifest symptom and underlying cause; he must be ready to examine all sides of a proposition before reaching a conclusion. And he must be willing to proceed upon tentative conclusions, honestly held but subject to revision as new facts come in. To develop such power in students, the teacher must also possess a disciplined, well-organized mind. The teacher may never write research publications but he will be a scholar in the basic sense of one constantly deepening his insights and tirelessly searching for the truth.

But information and reasoning power are not enough. On the critical problems of our time, many essential data are always unavailable. And even given the same data, equally competent minds will reason to different conclusions. Their conclusions differ because they have different goals and values. What is the ultimate purpose of life? Is it true that a good end never justifies evil means? Are human beings basically good and trustworthy or will they take advantage of a situation for personal gain whenever possible? If they are a mixture of motives and habits, where does the balance lie? As one ponders these questions, applying them to practical life problems, he gradually develops a sense of values reflected in his judgments. While the good teacher will not force his own personal views upon students, he must continually bring the issues to their attention and insist that they develop a consistent value structure of their own. Naturally depth and maturity in the teacher's own life philosophy will unconsciously influence the ideals of the children.

2. The student not only needs the ingredients of sound judgment but also practical experience in applying that judgment. The solution of any problem involves a blending of the facts, reasoning power, and values within the student's possession. These must be focused on a concrete situation and the student must gain experience over and over again in such problem solving. Moreover, he must be able responsibly and independently to defend his views against criticism. Only thus can he develop the maturity and self-confidence required for modern living.

If the student's experiences are to go beyond mere verbalism he must have direct contact with concrete problems. He must go into the community and see the operations of business, the processes of government, and the problems of race or poverty at first hand. He must talk with people who are protagonists in the struggle; he must learn to understand their motives, their problems, and their personal qualities. From a background of preliminary study he must be able to ask the thoughtful, relevant questions that will illuminate both sides of the issue. For older students particularly, the community is an indispensable laboratory for development of social understanding.

An equally good laboratory lies within the school organization itself. Children from the primary grades on can, commensurate with their maturity, assume a responsible role in the determination of classroom policies, playground regulations, and co-operative school enterprises. Confronted with these concrete problems, they can gather the evidence, analyze the issue, and apply their values in a manner at once meaningful and decisive. Such concrete activities give a new importance and dynamic to classroom reading and discussion. They relate education to life by making it part of life itself.

3. In addition to sound judgment related directly to practical living, the child must display attitudes of human acceptance and aesthetic sensitivity in his everyday life. It is one thing to give intellectual assent to these values but quite another matter to make them part of the fabric of daily experience.

Again this comes from habitual application. Classrooms that continually raise controversial questions within the scope of the child's comprehension, encouraging him to clarify and apply his own views, will develop constructive attitudes more firmly than classes devoted to rote learning. Constant contact with the beautiful in nature and the arts can develop a sensitivity and emotional response unlikely in children deprived of such contact. It is essential to society that the oncoming generation be so steeped in these experiences that wholesome responses become almost instinctive.

4. A further attribute of the competent young adult is that vital but elusive quality known as intellectual spark. Perhaps the most tragic indictment of education has come from the millions of children who have entered the first grade bubbling with enthusiasm and curiosity and who have been graduated as seniors bored and fed up. That such intellectual fires need not be dampened is demonstrated by the sizable group who have maintained their zest for learning throughout school years and indeed to the end of life.

It is difficult to put a finger on any single factor that dims the child's love for learning. Probably it is a result of many causes—preoccupation with materials that seem to have no relevance to the child's own interests, a system within which his only purpose is to please the teacher and get a mark, an atmosphere within which independence is discouraged and conformity rewarded, and teachers who are simply hearers of lessons.

The means of maintaining lively intellectual curiosity are likewise complex and will differ from teacher to teacher, from pupil to pupil. Clearly, however, the classwork must be related closely to the child's past experience and current needs. He must catch from the contagion of the teacher's own personality the thrill of discovering new truths. He must feel within himself a growing sense of mastery and power, a constant enrichment of life, and a sense of conquests yet to come. Whatever the means of maintaining and inflaming this intellectual spark, its preservation is one of the most important functions of the school and in the past one of the school's most serious failures. Society may rightfully expect that the school be so revamped that the minds of children will be quickened and inspired both then and throughout their subsequent lives.

Essential Role of the Teacher

It must be clear from the foregoing discussion that the teacher is key to the whole educational process. If he reflects in his own person the essence of sound education, if he is intellectually alive and socially concerned, he is likely to influence his students constructively. Yet the task of developing competence in students is so exacting that many qualities, both professional and personal, are necessary for success.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education recognized the complex character of the instructional job in setting forth standards for accreditation of undergraduate and teacher-education programs. It has pointed out that the professionally educated teacher:

1. Expresses carefully considered rather than impetuous judgments of public events. Views his own affairs and those of his profession in the light of a real understanding of the social, economic, and political factors operating in his community, nation, and world.
2. Shows in his relations with other people, as individuals and as groups, that he reflects upon and practices the values of democracy, accepting both the freedoms and the responsibilities involved.
3. Has developed an appreciation of people who are different from himself in cultural, racial, religious, economic, and national background, and is willing to accord them full equality of opportunity.
4. Has gained a useful understanding of the learning process as it operates in human development and of effective methods of guiding it in children, youth, and adults.
5. Has developed the ability and initiative to take responsibility for planning, guiding, and evaluating his own education and for helping others to learn.
6. Has learned to identify issues of moral choice involved in his personal and

professional life and has developed ethical principles and spiritual resources to guide his actions.

7. Has developed sufficient understanding of the activities and agencies of local communities to enable him to relate the educational activities of the school to the ongoing processes of community improvements.
8. Has gained a working knowledge of the principles governing the formation and functioning of social groups and is able to use group processes in the improvement of individual and community life.
9. Understands the purposes, development, programs, financial support, and administrative organization of the American system of public education, and participates professionally in group planning of improved educational programs and in performing the special duties he assumes.
10. Understands the physical and biological environment sufficiently well to guide children and youth in trying to use and control the environment for the welfare of all mankind.
11. Is able to communicate his thoughts orally and in writing with enough clarity and logic to be effective as a teacher.
12. Has a real appreciation of aesthetic values as these are represented in painting, sculpture, architecture, music, literature, and other media of creative expression.
13. Is able to demonstrate his ability to apply his intellectual, moral, aesthetic, and professional learnings as an effective teacher in a typical school situation.
14. Has acquired a teaching competence, in both knowledge and skills, in the subject-matter areas in which he expects to teach.[2]

It will be seen at once that these qualities of the successful teacher harmonize closely with the objectives of education proposed for all youth, but that the teacher must possess them in special degree. The objectives, never fully realized, are goals toward which he may strive throughout his career.

As the student proceeds through college and prepares for a teaching career himself, he must also gain professional insight into the function of public education and into his specific teaching responsibility. He must develop the skill for enabling others to achieve the learning that he has already come to prize. He must prepare himself for many functions:

1. The good teacher motivates students to want to learn. The enthusiasm of his own personality, the fixing of concrete goals for achievement, the ready recognition of success, and encouragement despite failures—all give new zest to the child's activity.

The successful teacher knows that he cannot force a child to learn. Rather he is the stage manager who so arranges the setting for the drama that the child will perform eagerly. He will endeavor so to mature the child that ultimately learning is self-initiated and no longer dependent upon external motivation and guidance. As Elbert Hubbard expressed it, "The object of teaching a child is to enable him to get along without his teacher."

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[2] From the *Revised Standards and Policies for Accrediting Colleges for Teacher Education*, Oneonta, New York: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1951, pp. 8–9.

2. The good teacher will relate new material to the child's past experience and present purposes. Unless it is tied to the child's past, he has no associational basis with which to understand and remember the new formation. Unless it relates to his purposes the desire for learning is dimmed. Indeed, Snygg and Combs go so far as to say:

> Unfortunately, material forced upon students without consideration of their present need and immediate goals tends to acquire a meaning which makes it less useful in the satisfaction of need than if it had never been studied. Since it does not assist the satisfaction of need, its intrusion into the field simply creates additional difficulty for the student. The demand that he abandon his current problems and turn to the study of the required material is pretty sure to cause him to regard that material as an obstacle to self-enhancement, as something to be avoided, a negative goal. If he remembers it at all after the examination is over he remembers it with this meaning and behaves toward it accordingly.[3]

This view does not eliminate learning of remote materials or for deferred purposes, but it insists upon imaginative interpretation to make the topic relevant to present interests. The effective teacher must know his pupils so well, both individually and as a group, that he can keep these relationships meaningful at all times. And of course he must have such wide familiarity with the materials under discussion that he can readily draw upon his reservoir of reading and experience to make the appropriate adaptations.

3. To make such adaptations effectively, the teacher of course must understand, and adjust his teaching to, individual differences. He will recognize that children vary enormously, not only in their capacity to learn and in their reading skills but also in the sociocultural background of their families, their travel and out-of-school experience, their health and energy, and their ambitions. An experience that will thrill one student, may leave another cold.

There are many instruments and procedures available today for helping teachers to become more realistically acquainted with the strengths and idiosyncracies of their pupils. Skill in using such devices and the school's personnel services will help the conscientious teacher understand his pupils. Such understanding is the basis for all subsequent adaptation of teaching methods.

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[3] Snygg, Donald, and Combs, Arthur, *Individual Behavior*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1949, p. 210.

4. The good teacher will make sure that each pupil is actively involved in classroom activities. Each will learn how to lead and to follow. Each will become so committed to the enterprise at hand that he feels a personal stake in the success or failure of the classroom assignment. Such involvement will itself promote motivation toward the creative contributions discussed above. Such involvement gives the child practical experience in doing the job, with resulting self-understanding and confidence. By actually doing it, he knows he can do it again and how to proceed.

5. A good teacher helps the child to combine direct experience with generalization. Without concrete experience, generalizations tend to be sheer verbalisms that are soon forgotten. Without generalization, concrete experiences are unrelated incidents devoid of meaning. As a child grows older his experience may become more vicarious but it must be equally vivid and meaningful to be utilized effectively in forming his judgments.

6. The good teacher co-operates readily with the total staff in fostering broad educational values and solving school problems. He seeks to enlist co-operation of parents and community in achieving the all-around growth of his pupils. While the classroom will naturally be a primary center of activity, he will be an educational statesman with concern for the smooth interaction of all factors in the home, school, and community that significantly affect the child. Moreover, he must expect in many communities to be the best "expert" available for consultation on problems related to his field. Just as a good truant officer is in effect a constructive social worker, so must the teacher apply professional spirit and competence to these broad extra-school problems entrusted to his leadership.

The Challenge to Teacher Education

In light of the above factors, it now becomes clear that the effective teacher is essentially a co-ordinator of student learning activities. In this respect he has much the same function as the successful school superintendent or business executive. Just as these administrators serve as creative leaders of their staffs, so does the good teacher lead children in defining objectives, bolster their morale, and help to set the conditions in which all individuals can perform most effectively.

This is really a task in human engineering requiring of the teacher high native ability and sound professional preparation. The school can never rise above the level of the teacher's competence. The requirements are complicated and exacting. He must be scientifically grounded in the subjects to be taught, the understanding of learning processes, the knowledge of children and the goals to be sought. He must be an artist in applying these insights to the job at hand, adapting methods constantly to shifting purposes and conditions. He needs the vision of Isaiah and the patience of Job.

There are today two serious challenges to the quality of our teaching profession. One is the sheer shortage of qualified personnel to meet increasing enrollments. It was estimated that schools of the mid-1950's operated with over 300,000 teachers who fell below professional standards in training and ability. Where this was true, the highly skilled and insightful activity proposed in this chapter was unlikely.

One may be grateful to such teachers who keep schools open during critical periods but we can hardly expect their children to have more than a pedantic and pedestrian experience.

The teacher shortage threatens to be still more serious in years ahead. Because of increased births, the elementary-school population is increasing over a million *each year* during the fifties and no slackening of birthrate is in sight. The high-school enrollment will probably be 35 per cent greater in 1960 than in 1950 and 65 per cent greater by 1965. The supply of new teachers coming from the colleges barely fills the normal vacancies resulting from death and resignation, leaving no recruits to replace sub-standard teachers or to meet the pressure of swelling enrollments.

Clearly more thousands of college students must be attracted into the teaching profession and this will require better salaries and school programs along with the new buildings—in other words, vastly increased school budgets. That our economy can afford the expenditure is demonstrated by the fact that the American public now spends as much for tobacco and jewelry, and one and one-half times as much for liquor, as it does for public schools. There is reason to believe that people will clarify their values and give schools the necessary support when the critical need becomes generally known.

The second challenge to the teaching profession is to develop programs of teacher education that will create masterful teachers. As in all professions, the preparation of teachers has proceeded from simple, intuitive practices to the highly organized and scientifically founded programs that are coming to characterize the modern college of teacher education. Even yet there is considerable disagreement concerning what constitutes the best teacher education. Much experimentation and development are still needed, although important guideposts are emerging, as this volume seeks to demonstrate.

Where are we now in teacher education? How did we get to this point? What are the trends? These questions constitute the theme of the next chapter.

2

TOWARD A PROFESSION OF TEACHING *

The fulfillment of the American dream of equal opportunity for all would not have been possible without the common school, but the common school cannot fulfill its mission unless it has a teacher equal to the task. By its nature and importance the task of teaching children requires general and professional education. Institutions for the purpose have evolved with the development of the common school in the United States.

Present problems cannot be fully understood without knowing something of the history of the struggle to create teacher-education agencies worthy of a democratic society. The task of preparing teachers for real professional status is difficult. If the common school, a central factor in this experiment in democracy, is to fulfill its mission the problems involved must be understood and solutions found. No one who shares the American dream will think the task of making teaching a profession impossible.

Across the nation the celebration has begun in many states of the completion of the first century of publicly supported schools for the preparation of teachers. For two centuries in the United States, prior to the establishment of the first such institution in 1839, there were neither schools for all children nor publicly supported teacher preparation. What has happened to the preparation of teachers in this first century of publicly supported teacher education? Are there vision, faith, and courage to match the example of the forefathers who began to plan the education of teachers?

The educational needs to be met are certainly no less important now than they were then. Both the problems and the means for solving them exist beyond the imagination of those who began the preparation of teachers in this country. The development of a profession of teaching to match the needs of a truly democratic society

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may either be lost by default or won by taking stock and planning wisely. By its nature this is a continuing challenge.

The century-long history of agencies for preparing teachers has not yet produced a real profession. Acceptable standards for a profession require a high order of special skill and knowledge. This special skill and knowledge must be recognized by society generally as being of a high order in the protection of life, in the interpretation and practice of law, in the molding of intelligence, or in interpreting the life of the spirit. This recognition must give to a profession the power to promulgate and enforce its own rules of conduct (subject only to general law or ethic) and to determine who may enter the profession. Some teachers with these requisite professional qualifications are now in the classroom and in other educational positions. Preparation at the doctoral level usually most commonly found in college teaching is increasingly found in the high school and even in the elementary school. A true profession can be reached if teachers deepen their understanding of the purpose and problems of education, increase their competence, and achieve effective organization.

This chapter deals with what has been done to prepare teachers for their role in the culture. It will especially deal with institutions for the education of teachers, both public and private, and with voluntary associations interested in the education of teachers. It will be possible only to suggest those themes which run through the history of teacher education in the United States and to relate this history to the broader social setting. For greater detail the reader must be referred to sources which give parts of this history and to a history still to be written which will bring all together in its proper setting.[1] It is hoped that in what is presented here the motives may be revealed which have guided those who have worked in this field, along with the recurrent problems, the attempted solution, the changes in practice, and the setting for other portions of this book.

If it is necessary to establish a zero point in describing the development of teaching as a profession in the United States, the year 1800 will serve. At that time the common school open to all was not in existence. The learnings necessary in the early culture were gained in the family and by apprenticeship in the economy. By the year 1800 the Constitution had been adopted and the blueprint for a new kind of government was in existence with its promise for all persons and its dependence upon them. To implement the blueprint, universal education became essential.

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[1] See Harper, Charles A., *A Century of Public Teacher Education,* Oneonta, New York: The American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1939.

Any kind of public education was still in its infancy. Teachers were generally of the lesser sort, ill paid, and without special training. They lacked the respect of those who were otherwise engaged in meeting the problems of a new society. But no one should suppose in reading the description of the early schoolmaster, whose popular prototype was Ichabod Crane, that the germs of leadership were not present. In the year 1794 the Society of Associated Teachers was organized in New York City. This society examined persons who wished to teach, and such as they found worthy, they certified to teach. Certification at this date seems to have been by "the profession."

The first half-century after 1800 witnessed a great debate concerning the role of public schools and the preparation of teachers for them. The relevance of these discussions to our modern scene is striking. A new state, destined to unparalleled growth and continuity, was enlarging its outlook and laying the basis for the present system of public schools. There were those who feared to give education to the common people. Others feared that the schools would cost too much.

Men from Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York led the debate. In Virginia, Jefferson was the prophet of education for a democracy. Governor Clinton in New York, who had had direct experience with the Lancasterian system of charity schools in New York City, displayed in his state papers his growing interest in and understanding of the problems of education. A quotation from his report to the legislature in 1826 reveals the level of the discussions then taking place:

> The vocation of teacher, in its influence on characters and destinies of the rising and fall of future generations, has either not fully been understood or duly estimated. It is or ought to be ranked among the learned professions. With a full admission of the merits of several who now officiate in that capacity, still it must be conceded that the information of many of the instructors of our common schools does not extend beyond rudimental education; that our expanding population requires constant accession to their members; and that, to realize these views, it is necessary that some new plan for obtaining able teachers should be devised. I therefore recommend a seminary for the education of teachers. . . . To break down the barriers which poverty has erected against the acquisition and dispensation of knowledge is to restore the just equilibrium of society. . . .

The colonies had established colleges and academies. Medicine and the ministry were the only professions which were beginning to move out from the apprenticeship level at the time of the Revolution. At first many believed that the academy should be expanded to provide the teachers for the common schools. The privately endowed and managed schools did then, and still do, provide part of the personnel for the schools. The division of labor between public and private agencies has been part of the dynamic interchange which has formed our present social and economic patterns.

The earliest public appropriation for the preparation of teachers was made in New York State in 1834 to selected private academies. The privately managed and supported schools could not meet the full demands for teachers in the public schools in number or in the specialized preparation required. Tried ten years, this experiment resulted in failure and the state turned to an institutional pattern designed solely for teacher education.

To Massachusetts goes the honor of establishing the first school in 1839 for preparing teachers for the common schools. The debate here had been carried on by private citizens—an illustrious list that included John Quincy Adams, Daniel Webster, and Horace Mann. We must turn to Horace Mann for the great exposition of our need for schools for preparing teachers. His belief in the people, his dedication to education as a means, and his devotion to teacher education, with the support of a small but able group, overcame the lethargy and sometimes the bitter opposition of others who were really in a majority. A committee of the Massachusetts legislature reported that

> . . . Another project, imitated from France and Prussia—is the establishment of normal schools. . . . Academies and high schools cost the Commonwealth nothing; and they are full adequate to furnish a competent supply of teachers. . . . Considering that our district schools are kept, on the average, for only three or four months of the year, it is obviously impossible, and perhaps it is undesirable, that the business of these schools should become a distinct and separate profession which the establishment of normal schools seems to anticipate.[2]

An often repeated quotation from Horace Mann will reveal his philosophy and his zeal:

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[2] U.S. Bureau of Education, *The First Normal School in America*, Circulars of Information, Washington, D.C., 1919, p. 48.

> I believe Normal Schools to be a new instrumentality in the advancement of the race. I believe that, without them, Free Schools themselves would be shorn of their strength and their healing power and would at length become mere charity schools and thus die out in fact and in form. Neither the art of printing, nor the trial by jury, nor a free press, nor free suffrage, can long exist, to any beneficial and salutary purpose, without schools for the training of teachers; for, if the character and qualifications of teachers be allowed to degenerate, the Free Schools will become pauper schools, and the free press will become a false and licentious press, and ignorant voters will become venal voters, and through the medium and guise of republican forms, an oligarchy of profligate and flagitious men will govern the land; nay, the universal diffusion and ultimate triumph of all-glorious Christianity itself must await the time when knowledge shall be diffused among men through the instrumentality of good schools. Coiled up in this institution, as in a spring, there is a vigor whose uncoiling may wheel the spheres.
>
> I consider this event as marking an era in the progress of education—which, as we all know, is the progress of civilization—on this western continent and throughout the world. It is the completion of the first normal schoolhouse ever erected in Massachusetts—in the Union—in this hemisphere. It belongs to that class of events which may happen once, but are incapable of being repeated.[3]

The ideas which Mann and others proposed were partly of European origin but were conditioned by a society free to develop its own values and the means to achieve them. As yet the social historian does not seem to have turned his attention to tracing these origins. The belief in man's ability to plan his destiny rationally may stem from the period of the Enlightenment in Europe and from even more remote sources. Certainly travelers to Germany, France, and England returned to advocate ideas and patterns of education which assisted men of that day in devising programs for the preparation of teachers. However, the conditions under which men lived then led them to devise whatever they needed to meet these conditions. In the education of teachers the United States has developed its own patterns. This tradition of freedom is one of our precious possessions.

The first normal schools seem in retrospect a feeble start. The gift of $10,000 by a private citizen at length persuaded the Massachusetts legislature to found a school which opened at Lexington in July, 1839, but was later moved to Framingham. Its personnel were a principal, the Reverend Cyrus Peirce, and three students. Despite its critics this venture was no foreign importation, but a plan that fitted the needs of the time. By 1850 Massachusetts had three normal schools; New York, Connecticut, and Michigan had one each; Rhode Island, New Jersey, Illinois, Minnesota, California, Maine, and Kansas followed by 1865. By 1900 the state-supported normal school had spread into nearly every state, the list numbering 127. An even greater number of private normal schools testified to the need. The growth of the normal school was a result of the establishment or the revision of the public-school system, beginning in the early part of the nineteenth century.

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[3] *Ibid.*

The normal school in its beginnings had little in common with existing higher education. The motives leading to its establishment grew out of the new patterns of living which were being established in a democracy. The origins of the colleges were aristocratic. For many years the normal school led a life of academic isolation, serving the needs of the common people. A school which admitted students on the basis of their knowledge of the common school studies and held them only for a year or two at best could have few concerns related to the higher education of the college or university. This isolation continued well into the twentieth century. The gradual voluntary co-ordination and recent acceleration of all higher education for the creation of a profession of teaching are important developments for our society.

Early Curricula in Teacher Education

Normal schools to prepare teachers for the common schools at once raised the question of what the curriculum for teachers should be. Accustomed, in the pioneer state of our culture, to make what he needed out of what he had, the teacher taught what he conceived to be appropriate for the primary needs of the local culture. The traditional Three R's formed the backbone of the early school course of study, and a mastery of this subject matter was naturally the proper concern of the normal schools. There was concern for other values, but these again came from the dominant elements in the culture. While the concepts of the Three R's have widened, they are still the important emphasis. The first-hand study of the needs of the people was the point of departure for making the curriculum. This study still is the central principle.

In Europe generally, what should be taught has been determined by the central government; in the United States this has been left to the individual states. In the early days it was left to the teacher with the aid of a few textbooks, whether in the public school or the normal school.

The first normal-school curriculum at Westfield, Massachusetts, is typical of the early days everywhere:

> Reading of scripture daily, Orthography (Spelling), Enunciation and reading, Writing, Physiology, Drawing, Grammar, Algebra, Geometry, Philosophy, Phonography, The globes, Theory and practice of teaching, Vocal music, English composition.[4]

The early records show that from the first the preparation of teachers required emphasis on personal qualities not written down in the formal curriculum. The importance of selection was recognized, even though applicants were not refused. The emphasis on the growth of persons as distinct from the emphasis on control of subject matter in books was a natural result of the purposes to be served. Our modern personnel departments are a projection of this concern. Personality traits have special significance for teachers of children. The adjustments between demands for traditional subject matter and the modern theories of personnel work challenge program makers today.

A model school for children was a part of the earliest equipment of the normal school. It served for both demonstration and practice. No record is available of the relative length of time given to the various subjects, but the actual experience with children was clearly the focus of all effort and has continued to be the hallmark of excellence in the professional preparation of teachers.

Mathematics claimed a place in the curriculum, but there was no history, no foreign language, and no science in our sense of the term. The evident concern was to equip teachers so as to enable children to take hold of their everyday tasks with the skills which would free their natural abilities and make them good citizens. Some knowledge of the Bible through daily reading testified to the respect for prevailing religious folkways.

Different Agencies for Teacher Education Develop

The normal-school pattern swept across the country with the tide of migration. Teachers were one of the early needs in the pioneer states. Freed from traditions governing in the Northeast, beyond the Alleghenies the normal school expanded to meet the local needs. Before 1900 the Central States began to exercise leadership in the preparation of teachers.

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[4] *Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1898-99, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, Vol. II, p. 2272.

The Commissioner of Education reported[5] in 1898 that public appropriations for normal schools had grown throughout the United States in fifty years from the first appropriation of $10,000 in Massachusetts to $2,510,934 for maintenance and operation and to $560,000 for buildings. In 1898 there were 2,037 teachers and 44,808 students. Graduates totaled 8,948.

The universities and private colleges were reported at the same time to have 9,501 students preparing to teach. The normal school was devoting its attention mainly to the preparation of elementary-school teachers, while the colleges were preparing teachers for the high schools. After 1890 the rapidly expanding high school was well on its way to becoming a part of the common schools of the nation, and the normal schools then began to prepare high-school teachers.

Despite this growth in facilities and students, a large number of private normal schools found it possible to exist on the ever-increasing demand for trained teachers, never fully met by graduates of the public normal schools, the private colleges, and the universities. Salaries and prestige in the public schools were too low to attract enough students in the one-year or two-year programs to supply a professionally trained teacher for all the schools.

The Teachers Institute also filled a large place in supplying teachers with a minimum of preparation. Sometimes locally organized, it also received state support. Lecturers spoke to all who came on matters related to "school keeping." The sessions varied in length from a few days to several weeks. In 1890 the Commissioner of Education, William T. Harris, found that 2,597 institutes with 10,233 instructors had been held in the previous year, with an enrollment of 251,768 students![6] Within the next two decades the institute was succeeded by the summer session organized by the normal schools and universities, but the institute had developed leaders for teacher education and filled a gap.

The First Fifty Years

The progress of professional training seems to have been painfully slow during the first fifty years after the establishment of the first normal school. The Chicago Committee on Methods of Instruction and Courses of Study in Normal Schools reported to the Department of Normal Schools of the National Education Association in 1890[7] that students were admitted on examination. High-school graduation was not generally required. Only mastery of the subjects taught in the common school was required before taking the professional courses: History of Education, Science of Education, Mental Science. Observation preceded practice teaching which completed a course varying from one year beyond elementary school to two years beyond high school, with most students starting to teach before completing the course. Students, usually drawn from the lower economic levels, were forced to earn their way to standard certification and academic graduation over a long period of years.

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[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 1793 ff.

[6] *Ibid.*

The average enrollment in all the normal schools at the turn of the century was estimated at about 10,000, or about one-third of one per cent of all the teachers in the country. It is evident that even at this level of preparation graduates of normal schools were in a select group compared with all who taught. The supply was filled in by institutes, by high-school training classes, and by those with no special training. The "percentage of teachers trained in normal schools of the total number ranged from fifty-six in Massachusetts to four in New York and Kansas." [8]

In the universities, starting in the Midwest in Iowa (1855), Michigan (1879), and Wisconsin (1881), chairs of pedagogy were established by 1890 singly or in combination in seventy-four institutions.[9] Their earlier origin at the university level in the Midwest was a significant result of differences in the culture and in the organization of state educational programs.

A further evidence of the gathering momentum for the professional education of teachers came with the chartering in 1889 of an institution which was later to become Teachers College of Columbia University, where a graduate program for those who were to teach in the normal school and occupy other positions of leadership in the schools was to be established.

From the reports of the Commissioner of Education and from other records we can understand that fifty years after the first normal school was founded the needs for professional education were widening and that the gradually increasing association of those who had studied and taught in the relatively isolated normal schools was promoting the discussion and critical analysis of their problems. Despite many weaknesses, the preparation of teachers for their work had been firmly established in a kind of folk movement with many variations in form and organization.

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[7] National Education Association, *Proceedings, 1890*. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1890.

[8] Pangburn, Jessie M., *The Evolution of the American Teachers College*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, pp. 16–17.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

An instrument was being forged which was essential to a society of free men. The teacher in the common school needed better preparation to cope with the task of educating a society that was emerging from its own adolescence. The history of the next fifty years and up to the present time has to do with the efforts of those who tried to organize the scattered forces to produce teachers worthy of the times. Gradually the leaders in this effort were developing the power of self-criticism and, through association, the knowledge and the power necessary for improvement.

Co-operative Study of Teacher Education

In the last decade of the nineteenth century the proceedings of the normal-school section of the National Education Association reveal new and vigorous leadership. The McMurrys, Butler, De Garmo, Parker, and Dewey were lifting the level of discussion and opening new vistas. Foreign study, the influence of the universities, a higher standard of living, and the need for effective participation in an industrial democracy were setting the stage for developments in teacher preparation. Adaptation to new situations came slowly. First the goals had to be seen and widely discussed; then the means for achieving them had to be devised. The actors on the stage in the first decade of the twentieth century, responding to the demands for leadership, could hardly have foreseen the forces to be unloosed in the next fifty years.

Basic concepts were taking form, however, which were to govern future developments. In 1912 the Department of Normal Schools of the NEA put forth the following Declaration of Principles:

1. The twentieth-century normal school is dedicated to higher education, with the special function of supplying teachers for the rural schools, the elementary schools, and the high schools.
2. Its entrance requirements as to scholarship will be practically the same requirements that are now demanded by the college—graduation from a four-year high school.
3. It will extend its courses of instruction and practice, as conditions may demand, to four-year courses, thus giving it as high a standing in the way of discipline and scholarship as the college now possesses.
4. It will widely extend the field of professional experimentation and investigation.

> 5. It will try out its graduates as to their ability to teach and manage schools by such a period of practice-teaching as will settle the case beyond peradventure.
> 6. It will plan effectually to train teachers for rural schools, to stimulate and foster every educative agency toward the development of rural community life, and to elevate the professional position of the rural teacher.
> 7. It will set up definite ends of education that will relate themselves to the life of the people in all departments of human interest and will thus become a great social energy.
>
> As the public school is going to become, next to the family, the most potent social agent, so the normal school is going to fit teachers to perform this educative function.[10]

Discussion of the basic issues was not enough. Organization became necessary if goals seen were to be reached.

Great confusion existed in the relationships between the colleges and the rapidly increasing high schools at the close of the century. The New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools had been formed to assist in bridging this gap. In the Middle West the University of Michigan had devised a plan for establishing a list of approved high schools, graduation from which entitled a student to enter the University. Approval was derived from an inspection by a visitor from the University. Out of this experience came a wider organization with the same purposes, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The first meeting was held in 1895. Its sponsors were Northwestern University, the University of Michigan, and the University of Wisconsin. Among those present were three representatives of normal schools: H. H. Seerly, Cedar Falls, Iowa; E. G. Cooley, Chicago, Illinois; J. R. Kirk, Kirksville, Missouri.[11]

The habit of voluntary association to deal with common problems is deep seated in our culture. The development of public opinion which finds expression in government action comes in large measure from effective organization by those directly concerned with any part of our culture or economy. The resulting conflict may well be frustrating at times but it may also result in wider understanding of the issues and freedom of choice by the people. In the North Central Association leaders in education exercised a powerful influence on schools at all levels. The importance of this demonstration of ability to create democratic agencies to direct policy was heightened by conditions present in American education at the turn of the century. Rapid expansion needed wise direction.

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[10] Reprinted, *Yearbook, American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1922.* Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1922, pp. 11–12.

[11] Davis, C. O., *History of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1895–1945.* Ann Arbor: The Association, 1945, p. 18.

Those who went to the meetings of the North Central Association were executives from the schools and colleges, the persons through whom action must be initiated. They were the agents of government or private boards of control and they were responsible for developing and carrying out policy. Their own education on the issues with which they had to deal was essential. The participation of personnel from the university was important because of their capacity for leadership. The forum thus created sent its participants back to their local groups and to their responsible boards informed on the agreed upon objectives. If qualified to do so they had represented their local interest and shared in the policy decisions. The quality of executive leadership for any unit became one of the criteria for judging the quality of an institution. Thus the North Central Association and other similar organizations became schools for administrators.

Standards for Accreditation

In the earlier days criteria for approval were derived out of experience, discussion, and agreement. Only after many years was research to lay a more objective basis for standards.

The transfer of this pattern of accreditation which had demonstrated its usefulness in the high schools to the colleges was a logical next step. Standards were worked out and a list of approved colleges published. No thought was given to standards for the professional preparation of teachers, nor indeed for any profession. Graduation from an approved college came soon to be a requirement for teachers in approved high schools. This was a powerful instrument working in both directions.

The normal schools, unable to meet the standards for colleges, were, however, given membership on their own list. The standards for this list were less carefully contrived and less strictly applied. This clearly exposed weakness stimulated the normal schools to effective organization and action, but not until 1928 were any from this list able to gain admittance to the regular college list.

In these days of easy communication it is difficult to understand the obstacles to communication in 1900. Means for travel now accepted as a necessity were not in existence or were only in their beginnings. Even within states little was done to promote interinstitutional understanding and co-operation. In the Middle West the oratorical contest was a slender thread which crossed state lines. Out of these informal meetings came the North Central Association of Normal School Presidents and Principals in 1902. The professional school for teachers had to develop its own distinctive organization. Its leaders were the same ones who were onlookers in the North Central Association. They began soon to hold meetings at the same time as the North Central Association. In their own meetings they debated the merits of "standardization" for teacher education. Changing habits deeply rooted in a local setting met with opposition. Years of association were necessary before the next steps were possible. Meanwhile, individual normal schools extended their curricula to four years and began to grant degrees. Leaders emerged who had observed at first-hand what organization had accomplished in the North Central Association. Not strong enough to claim a place alongside the traditional degree-granting colleges, the normal schools' share in the high-school scene was limited by the accrediting processes of the North Central Association which required high schools to employ graduates of the colleges on its accredited list. The normal schools, always the champion of professional preparation for teachers in the common schools, consequently sought to extend their programs to include the preparation of teachers for the high school.

Voluntary Associations

Voluntary association to deal with common problems gradually brought about solutions which took the place of those that might have been imposed by a central government. The history of improvement in teacher education in the United States after 1900 is to be found in the work of voluntary associations which crossed state borders and gradually included more and more of those persons concerned in any way with teacher education.

During the nineteenth century the traditional, largely private four-year colleges, engrossed in academic patterns, did not play an active role in voluntary associations for teacher education. Courses for teachers were offered, but, except for those required to meet local pressures and certification, the education of teachers was seldom stated as an institutional objective in the academic college catalog. Individual students from the colleges found their way into teaching but often on the way to other callings with higher pay and greater prestige.

The North Central Council of State Normal School Presidents, founded in 1902, was the second organized agency for exchanging information regarding the education of teachers for the common schools. The National Education Association Department of Normal Schools was founded in 1870. The records of these meetings in the yearbooks of the NEA constitute an important source of information for the years in which the Department was in existence. These meetings provided a forum where individuals were brought together, but the organization was not effective in bringing about immediate change. The North Central Association of Normal Schools, derived from a narrower geographical area, was a more effective unit. The presidents and principals came to the meetings of this group. They were policy-makers and executives. The institutions they represented were all publicly supported. The West was freer from binding tradition than the East. It was a natural sequence, therefore, that the normal schools in the Middle West, having developed in some cases the four-year degree-granting program, should assume new leadership at the national level.

In 1917 the North Central Association of Normal School Presidents and Principals expanded into a national organization. These developments, however, were not rapid enough to satisfy the needs of those who were pressing for advanced standards. In 1918, under the leadership of institutions from Iowa, Missouri, Michigan, and Ohio, the first regular session of the American Association of Teachers Colleges was held as the result of an informal meeting the previous year. This group proceeded at once to apply those methods which had proved so effective in the North Central Association. A name had been found to indicate the status which they had or at least desired. The leadership in the new associations overlapped and in 1923 the two groups joined forces under the Teachers College name.

In 1925 it was determined to disband the Department of Normal Schools of the National Education Association. The American Association of Teachers Colleges became a department of the National Education Association, meeting at the same time as the Department of Superintendents, thus signifying that the Association was primarily for administrators. The institutional leadership for teacher education came to be in one association, national in scope. Its composition and organization cleared the decks for action.

How well the foundation had been laid for significant improvement can be seen from the contents of a report made by a committee of the National Council of Education in February, 1922. Under the chairmanship of President Charles McKenny, of the Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, the Committee included Dr. William C. Bagley, of Teachers College, Columbia University; President David Felmley, of Normal University, Normal, Illinois; President W. A. Jessup, of the State University of Iowa, Iowa City; President John R. Kirk, of the Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville; and President Robert H. Wright, of Teachers Training School, Greenville, North Carolina. The variety of institutions and their location are significant evidence of the national coverage and of existing conditions.

The committee reached the following conclusions:

1. In the opinion of this committee the teachers college movement is sound in policy. The normal schools began as secondary schools with a professional purpose. As public education progressed they advanced to the rank of junior colleges and with the further progress of public education it is perfectly natural that they should develop into professional colleges. This development is in complete harmony with the general advancement of organized education. Moreover, it is a necessity if we are to have a body of trained teachers with a professional attitude toward their work. Especially is it important that we should have teachers colleges in view of the disposition of teachers in service to continue their education. Thousands of such teachers find the work offered by the teachers colleges during the summer session their greatest single opportunity for academic and professional advancement.
2. The teachers college movement is still in the experimental stage. While a few institutions have established themselves firmly in the college field and have received general recognition for their work, probably three-fourths of the so-called teachers colleges are just advancing to senior college rank. It will take a number of years for them to establish their courses, increase their attendance, and standardize their work on a college basis.
3. The movement should receive encouragement from all friends of public education. Legislatures which have been responsible for the legal enactments which have created these teachers colleges should back them up financially and make it possible for them to develop a physical plant and the faculties necessary for the work which they have been authorized to undertake.
4. The universities should evince a cooperative spirit toward the teachers college movement. In the great work of education there is room and glory for all. The universities will find their resources taxed to the limit to care for those who desire to enter their doors. Any spirit of rivalry or over-zealous competition between the educational institutions of a State should cease. The universities and the teachers colleges should be colleagues and firm friends in advancing the interests of education within their respective States.
5. The normal schools which advance to the rank of teachers colleges should take the name college. It is idle to ask what is in a name, for there is much in

a name. In public thinking the term "school" is applied to an institution below college rank. The name "college" has an appeal which the name "normal school" does not have, and as soon as a normal school is authorized to take up senior college work it should take the name indicative to its rank.

6. The teachers colleges should address themselves to the task of standardization. If they are to be colleges in name they should be colleges in fact. This means that for the entrance requirements, student's load, content of courses, academic preparation of faculty, faculty load, number of weeks' teaching a year, etcetera, they should "square" with college standards. Teachers colleges may never hope to have the respect and recognition of the colleges and universities and the public in general until this task of standardization is achieved.

7. And as an aid to this standardization, the committee suggests that a more detailed study be made of the organization and administration of teachers colleges and of the content of the course of study, such report to be made by the present committees or by some other committee authorized for that particular purpose.[12]

The implementation of the recommendation for detailed study was to come from the newly organized American Association of Teachers Colleges.

The long chain of events leading up to the organization of the American Association of Teachers Colleges cannot be fully appreciated unless the role of leadership is understood. The budgets of the normal schools often did not provide for traveling expenses. Enthusiastic leaders committed to the cause of public education, responding to pressing need on the home campus, spent their personal funds for travel and labored greatly in the interest of better education for teachers.

A medium of communication was recognized as essential. The first Yearbook, published in 1922, tells the story of the previous organizations and records their experience to that date. It contains the report of the Committee,[13] already quoted, as a platform for an action program. It also contains, significantly, a discussion of the next steps in establishing standards for teachers colleges. This report was based on an exploration of the conditions actually existing in the normal schools with respect to faculty-student ratio, teaching load, and laboratory schools. There was also a report on the widely varying practices in the granting of degrees, and another on the provisions for a program of health and physical education. These activities indicated the direction in which the Association would move in attacking its problems. Here were the beginnings of dependence upon objective data as a basis for developing institutional standards.

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[12] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1922.* Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1922, pp. 29–30.

[13] *Ibid.*, pp. 29–50.

The standards [14] adopted at the 1927 meeting defined a teachers college. They set standards for admission; for graduation; for the size of faculty; for preparation of the faculty; for the teaching load of the faculty; for the training school and student teaching; for the organization of the curriculum; for the living conditions of students; for the library; for laboratory and shop equipment; for the location, construction, and sanitary conditions of buildings; for the number and classification of students; for financial support; for the character of the curriculum, the efficiency of instruction, the scholarly spirit and professional atmosphere of the institution, the standard for granting degrees, the general tone of the teachers college, and for eliminating instruction below college level; for providing a ladder on which institutions could be placed, with its rungs low enough to encourage the weakest institutions, and high enough to challenge the strongest. The classification provided five rungs for Class A colleges, five for Class B colleges, and five for Class C colleges. It was not expected that any institution would be able to reach the top of the ladder when the standards were first applied. The lowest rungs were to disappear; no institution could stand still. This new device, together with the plan to restudy and refine all standards co-operatively, proved to be a powerful instrument for bringing about change. It required an annual report. It further provided that a committee should visit the institution applying for accreditment in order to secure data on its classification. The reports and the intervisitation have also proven to be powerful instruments.

A critical examination of these standards reveals their indebtedness to the North Central Association standards. These criteria refer to those factors which by common consent determine the quality of any college. There were, however, new elements. The standards for the laboratory school and student teaching recognized what has always been the heart of the professional curriculum. More specific relationships to professional standards were to appear later.

Before the meeting of the Association in 1928, reports had been submitted to the Committee on Accrediting and visits had been made to 73 campuses. Sixty-three institutions were reported in Class

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[14] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1927*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1927, pp. 15–21.

A; 7 junior colleges in Class A and 3 junior colleges in Class B were also listed.

In 1927 the North Central Association opened its general list to teachers colleges which could qualify by its standards.

In 1928 the first full-scale study to supply objective data for the standards was presented: a standard for libraries of teachers colleges. The Association had now accepted the principle of developing a set of standards, based on systematic study. These studies were usually conducted co-operatively with all the institutions participating in collecting the data, in the discussion of the conclusions, and in the adoption of a standard. Each year some changes were made in the standards, and the membership became more and more accustomed to moving goals. The processes of study and accreditation were proving beneficial as these studies and standards were carried to the campuses and reported to the legislative bodies supporting their programs. The definition of the goals made it easier to effect desirable changes within the resources they already had. The Association was providing in-service training for the executives of the member institutions. In one way or another all participated. Meeting with their co-workers in an annual conference, if only for two days, and the publication of a yearbook developed lines of communication which were nationwide.

A National Survey

The membership of the Association soon sought a study of teacher education in the United States of a much wider scope than was possible within the resources of the Association. In 1929, a resolution requesting the Commissioner of Education to undertake a nationwide survey of the education of teachers was passed by the American Association of Teachers Colleges. It was endorsed by the National Council of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education, by the Association of Deans of Schools of Education, and by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The widening relationships of the American Association of Teachers Colleges bore fruit in the assistance which related organizations gave to their proposals. In 1931 $200,000 had been appropriated and a board of consultants was established.[15]

The Director of the Survey reported to the Association in 1933 [16] on the number of institutions educating teachers, the higher standards of preparation, the exploitation of rural schools, the adjustments demanded with the rise of the junior college, preparation of staff members of institutions preparing teachers, the curricula in teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges, the place of the training school in the education of teachers, professional treatment of subject matter, extra-curricular activities of teachers, graduate work in the education of teachers, the summer school, in-service education of teachers, and student welfare services.

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[15] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1931*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1931, p. 86.

[16] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1933*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1933, p. 99.

The report included findings on the level of preparation for teachers in the United States in 1930–31:[17]

	Elem. %	J.H.S. %	H.S. %
High school or less	5.7	1.9	.9
½ year or less in college	6.0	1.0	.4
1 year in college	14.5	3.2	1.1
2 years in college	46.2	17.5	4.4
3 years in college	15.5	16.0	6.1
4 years in college	10.2	43.7	58.1
1 year graduate study	1.3	12.1	20.2
2 years graduate study	.4	3.1	5.9
3 years graduate study	.1	.8	1.5
More than 3 years	.1	.7	1.4

The four-year degree-granting program was now becoming the dominant practice throughout the nation. The standards for the profession were rising. The data gathered from reports from 107 teachers colleges continuously members of the American Association of Teachers Colleges from 1927 to 1942 showed that the graduates with the Bachelor's degree increased during this period from 22 per cent to 60 per cent[18] of those completing established programs.

In 1941, in a summary of twenty-five years of progress by other measures of quality, these same institutions had quadrupled their physical resources, doubled their number of students, quadrupled the number of volumes in the library, decreased those teaching without degree from 43 per cent to one per cent (including laboratory school teachers), decreased the number of teachers with a Bachelor's degree only from 35 per cent to 8 per cent, increased the number teaching with a Master's degree from 17 per cent to 66 per cent and the Doctor's degree from 5 per cent to 25 per cent.[19]

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[17] Adapted from *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, Bulletin 1933, No. 10, United States Office of Education, Department of Interior, Vol. VI, p. 42.

[18] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1943*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1943, p. 130.

Curriculum Problems

The curriculum did not end with the Bachelor's degree. The Fifteenth Yearbook (1936) reports a discussion of "Graduate School Practices and Requirements in Teachers Colleges." Teachers colleges were granting an advanced degree in response to increasing demands for specialization. This was new and controversial ground, difficult of organization. In many respects graduate work for the classroom teacher did not follow accepted standards in the university graduate schools. The teachers college was forced to develop its own appropriate practices for the extension of the education of classroom teachers and specialists.

The extension of the curriculum to four years and beyond raised problems of emphasis. The values in a liberal education and the new concepts of a general education also challenged curriculum makers. Change of any kind was tied to certification requirements set up by the states. The constantly increasing number of subjects related to the work of the elementary-school teacher presented additional difficulties.

For many years the teachers colleges were able to follow traditional patterns in the preparation of secondary-school teachers but these, in turn, became subject to change as larger numbers of the children of the nation entered the secondary schools, making necessary some adjustments in the secondary-school program. Correlative change in preparing teachers requires adjustments difficult to bring about, and the Association has been slow in setting up anything more than the most general directives for the reorganization of the curriculum beyond the Bachelor's degree.

The American Association of University Women

Membership in the American Association of University Women has been possible only when the institution from which the teacher graduated was on the accredited list of the American Association of University Women. Since membership in this group in the local community was socially desirable, the records of the Association indicate, throughout the years, negotiations with that organization for the inclusion of teachers colleges on their accredited list. Accreditation by this group had been used to improve the conditions of employment for women. The Association had insisted on equal pay for equal service, recognition of women in faculty status, and provision of housing with acceptable standards. It also emphasized curricula looking toward personal development as well as the preparation of elementary-school teachers. The insistence on better living conditions for students in the teachers colleges helped to secure dormitories. Gradually, with increasing understanding of the objectives of each organization, recognition has been given to the teachers colleges by the American Association of University Women.

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[19] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1941*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1941, p. 51.

Rising Standards

In 1938 the Accrediting Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges included the following statements in its report:

> There are many evidences of significant progress. The number of institutions accredited has been increased, while there has been a progressive decline in the number of warnings and conditions. . . . Probably the greatest forward step taken during the past four or five years was the adoption of the health service standard. . . . Starting with practically no health service to students a few years ago, member institutions have provided annual health examinations by college physicians, free consultation, free hospitalization or infirmary care for three to seven days, full time services of school nurses, opportunity for consultation with competent dentists and, in many cases, opportunity provided for the services of psychiatrists.[39]

The standards of the Association were being continually improved, the objectives were better understood, and the application of the standards was more effective in producing change and in indicating to all institutions that good standards were both possible and necessary. Improvements on the campuses by 1940 became widely distributed, enabling the Association to publish a list without reference to "the ladder." Processes of communication and a generally higher level of operation had made it possible to rely on a more mature motivation for bringing about desirable changes.

Responding to the demand for scholarship, the teachers colleges were upgrading the preparation of staff members through selection and in-service education. In 1943 the reports showed a gain from a median preparation of less than a half year of graduate training in 1917 to more than a year and a half of graduate training in 1943.[21]

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[39] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1938.* Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1938, p. 137.

The Commission on Teacher Education

The years before World War II were especially notable for the work of the Commission on Teacher Education. Conditions in higher education related to the education of teachers caused general concern. While the American Association of Teachers Colleges continued a study of its problems, it included only part of the institutions preparing teachers and these mostly publicly supported. There were those who doubted the adequacy of its leadership. Critics were disturbed by the growing strength of the teachers colleges and the lack of initiative and participation in the preparation of teachers by the older academic institutions. Problems of reorganization in the curriculum were increasingly insistent, coming from many quarters. There was concern with the part that the schools, especially the common schools, were to play in the development of a democratic culture. A new national study seemed timely.

The American Council on Education sought and obtained from the General Education Board a grant of $1,250,000. A commission, representative of higher education and the lay public, was formed. Its primary purpose was not to gather data, as had been the case in the national survey conducted by the United States Office of Education, but to help local groups to experiment, and by sharing experiences, discussion, and publication, to stimulate improvement at the local level. Pilot centers were established in public and private colleges and in universities committed to the preparation of teachers. Local and state school systems were included to promote teacher growth while on the job. The interrelatedness of problems and responsibilities was disclosed and wider co-operation was promoted.

Grants from the Commission on Teacher Education and the Kellogg Foundation provided funds for bringing leaders from all parts of the country to a School for Executives held at Clear Lake, Michigan, in 1942. The subsidies for travel, pre-planning of the program, and provision for consultants resulted in making a two-weeks national conference of historic importance. An account was published by the American Council on Education.[22] The School for Executives has met biennially since 1942 in various parts of the country, and is now carried on with minor subsidy. Gradually persons from related groups have come to the School, thus developing associations which assisted in desirable wider group action. The importance of wider communication can hardly be overemphasized in the development of an effective program of teacher preparation in a democratic society. Barriers, as between special interest groups, have continued to break down under the impact of common problems to be solved, and there is increasing understanding that the national interest requires co-operative effort.

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[21] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, *Yearbook, 1948*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1948, p. 138.

Reports of the activities of the Commission were made at the annual meetings of the American Association of Teachers Colleges. Seven members participated directly in its study.

The Commission concerned itself with the development of new materials for the study of psychology. A center for assembling the materials that are useful for a teacher was set up at the University of Chicago, and about one-fourth of the funds of the Commission were spent on this study. As a result, the teaching of psychology, often arid and academic, now emphasizes more functional materials under the new heads of Human Development and Child Development. Fellows from the teachers colleges, working in the Child Development Center, organized new materials which were widely circulated among teachers of psychology.

The relationships developed among organizations with similar interests during the life of the Commission were fostered afterward by a Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. This provided a forum for discussion of common problems.

Publication

The publications service of the Association consisted first of the Yearbook only. Later a series of studies resulted from the work of the Committee on Standards and Surveys. Anticipating the building developments after the war, the Association published in 1945 a volume which was intended to assist in the planning of new libraries—"Tomorrow's Libraries for Teachers Colleges." This had wide distribution. In the same year, 2000 copies of "Child Growth and Development Emphases in Teacher Education" were distributed. The Yearbook had become the standard reference for teacher-education activities in the United States.

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[22] American Council on Education, *The School for Executives*. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1942, 218 pp.

Applying the Standards

The picture of the activities of the Association would not be complete unless something was said in regard to the work of the Committee on Accrediting. To this group fell the responsibility for applying the standards by annual report and visitation. The reports were analyzed and significant developments reported for individual institutions and for the group as a whole. To this committee fell the difficult task of following up deficiencies which seemed to exist in individual institutions, and of recommending appropriate action. Sometimes this resulted in placing an institution on probation, sometimes in removal from the accredited list.

The standard referring to political control sometimes revealed problems which required sound judgment and statesmanlike action. Much of the history of these negotiations is unwritten. The action of this committee in individual cases had wide influence.

Reorganizing the Forces for Professional Improvement

World War II also brought conditions which made the American Association of Teachers Colleges, along with other organizations, reconsider its role and the effectiveness of its organization. The secretary's report in the 1947 Yearbook presents the results of discussions which had taken place over a period of years, and is quoted here because of its reference to reorganization, which was to take place in later years:

> This is 1947. What has happened to this country and the world can hardly be described as another war. It is a social revolution, and we are again challenged to face the problems of preparing teachers for a new kind of world. What are our responsibilities? What are our resources? How can we best plan to use them for the purposes that belong in the American tradition?
>
> We prepare teachers for the common schools. If we include all that rightly falls under that heading in the years ahead we shall have a kind of quality of professional school to serve the students and the community that has not yet been seen on this continent. To build that school is our job. No one else will do it, either in the quality or quantity required. How can we do it? I know of campuses where there are promising beginnings. But we shall none of us get there so well by ourselves. Association is necessary. What kind shall it be?
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> . . . .
>
> Our greatest present and potential resources are to be found in a working membership; in the ability to identify significant problems, to secure persons

of ability to work upon them, to cooperate wisely in the programs to get good solutions into practice.

We should retain and strengthen our connection with the National Education Association. The interests of our membership, the history and present status of associations in the United States indicate that we should also work as we have done in the past with the American Council on Education. Our association with a wide range of organizations concerned with teacher education should be maintained and strengthened through our active membership in, and support of, the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.

We should change our name to make it possible for us to include those institutions which have a primary interest in teacher education.

We should retain institutional membership for the present, adding schools of education in universities and other institutions that can qualify by present tests, but we should experiment further with individual memberships—as we have begun to do through our relations with the TCPA—because this may eventually tap essential sources of power in our faculty groups.

We should increase our dues to a point where the Association can carry out the program now demanded of it. . . . There exists in the present organization sufficient flexibility to erect the program of the Association.

The Association should, as soon as possible, acquire a full-time person to serve the purposes of the Association under the direction of the Executive Committee. If a satisfactory arrangement can be worked out, this person might well have an office in Washington. I am forced to conclude, however, that shared budgeting for the salary of such a person does not seem workable. While we preserve our organization in its present form, it is wise to work within our own resources. When the demands of teacher education make this organization inadequate we should consider whatever steps are necessary to preserve the values which are entrusted to us. That step may be nearer than we now see.

We should reconsider the time and place of the annual meeting.

We are strong enough and sure enough of ourselves to welcome the university schools of education. There is work for them to do and some of it we are not able to do without them. The addition of this group will not enlarge our Association to an unwieldy size. Moreover, experience, especially at our Schools for Executives, has demonstrated that we can arrange our programs and other activities so as to provide both for shared attention to common concerns and sub-group attention to matters of special interest.

We are, so far as I know, the only department of the NEA whose membership is institutional. That basis of membership has proved to have great values and I know of no disposition to abandon it. Yet we have long been aware of the fact that what goes on with us is less influenced by the rank and file of the teachers in our institutions than would be desirable, and exercises less influence on them.

We cannot hope to influence teacher education in the United States unless we devise ways and means of working more closely with those who carry on the program, our faculties and persons in other related agencies. We should most thoughtfully consider how this may be brought about.

Only in recent years has the Executive Committee played a major role in the work of the Association. It should be a continuing body, accumulating a working group with the inclination and opportunity to summon to its aid resources from appropriate areas in determining policy.

The work of the Committee on Standards and Surveys should be expanded with adequate support. A wide range of studies is under way. The Committee is spreading its work more widely among the Association members.

The work of the Accrediting Committee should be carried on and strengthened. It is in this Committee that the implementation of the studies and standards takes place, at least in good part. We have now gained sufficient prestige to look forward with confidence to being able to maintain our minimum standards. We should, however, be interested not only in minimum standards, but in those measures which stimulate us mutually to optimum standards. Since the probems raised reach into the farthest recesses of our economic and social patterns, the work of this committee will continually call for wise and far-seeing statesmanship.

In October 1944 the Executive Committee asked the executive secretaries of the most important studies which had been made by the General Education Board to spend two days in discussing the implications of its studies for our Association program. The synopsis of their recommendations printed in the 1945 Yearbook will remain a source of guidance to us for years to come. We can summarize them briefly by saying that (1) we should make increasing use of the methods of self-study; (2) we should experiment and evaluate; (3) we should make use of the studies in related fields; (4) we should bring together people who are doing similar work and facilitate the discussion, study, and report on important problems; (5) we must in some way secure channels of communication directed specifically to working groups, to make the work of the various committees significant. Our educational program goes far beyond our immediate clientele.

Some of the suggested changes involve constitutional changes. Fees have been under discussion for some time. Due notice has been given of this change and action can be taken at this meeting.

We should prepare ourselves and our Association to meet our responsibilities.[23]

A full-time associate secretary joined the Central Office in 1947. The co-ordination of the activities of the Association had moved beyond the possibility of covering needed work by voluntary service. If willingness to tax sufficiently to finance an effective organization is a measure of maturity, the change from isolated normal schools paying a fee of two dollars a year to new fees from one hundred dollars to two hundred fifty dollars, depending on the size and program of the member institutions, shows growth.

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[23] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *Yearbook, 1947*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1947, pp. 139–142.

Co-ordinating the Efforts of Related Groups

The integration of related organizations to represent more effectively the varied interests in teacher education resulted in the organization in 1949 of the Committee on the Coordination of Collegiate Problems in Teacher Education. One body of opinion had consistently stressed the importance of keeping the American Association of Teachers Colleges free from entangling alliances, of keeping it an agency for the exchange of opinion, administrative research, and in-service education for executives. But from time to time conditions arose which involved some kind of co-operative action. The Association for Student Teaching, whose interests were identical at a different level with those of the administrators of the colleges, sought closer ties. The Association of Schools of Music developed its own accredited list and mutual interests developed. The Teacher Education Personnel group became a department of the American Association of Teachers Colleges. Other special groups recognized the need of merging common interests. This resulted in the formation of the Committee on the Coordination of Collegiate Problems of Teacher Education—which now includes the following galaxy:

National Art Education Association
National Association of Business Teacher-Training Institutions
National Society of College Teachers of Education
Teachers College Extension and Field Service Association
American Association for Health, Physical Education & Recreation
American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education
Music Educators National Conference
American Library Association
Student Personnel Association for Teacher Education
Association for Student Teaching
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education
Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education
National Institutional Teacher Placement Association
Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, NEA
College Physical Education Association

The Secretary of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education acts as the secretary of the Committee of Coordination. It has become a clearing house for accrediting functions, planning national meetings, and the intervisitation program. Several of these organizations have developed their own special standards in co-operation with the Committee on Studies and Standards of the

AACTE. The need for more research in the office of the Association and a need for co-ordination of research in related groups have also begun to emerge as major problems.

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

Still another reorganization of the major institutional groups came about after the war. In 1948 the National Association of Colleges and Departments of Education and the National Association of Teacher Education Institutions in Metropolitan Districts joined with the American Association of Teachers Colleges, to form the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The new name and appropriate changes in the Constitution made it possible for all institutions genuinely interested in teacher education to join in the program of a voluntary association for improving preparation of teachers.

The Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards

Another development of major importance after the war came with the formation of the Commission on Teacher Preparation and Professional Standards in the National Education Association. The classroom teachers were the largest membership in the National Education Association. Seeking ways to improve the conditions of the classroom teachers, after a period of preparatory discussion they achieved the status of a commission in the NEA. In this, as in other organizations which had preceded it, the persons who had been working with the American Association of Teachers Colleges were also leaders in the movement to give the teachers an effective voice concerning their preparation. The Yearbook of the Association for 1947 records the greetings of Dean W. E. Peik, Chairman of the Commission.[24] Dean Peik had long been a leader in the American Association of Teachers Colleges, and later became its president. This organization followed the example of the medical profession in which the practicing physicians assumed the responsibility for the standards of their profession and for the maintenance of appropriate standards in practice.

Looking back over the successive reorganizations of the groups interested in teacher education, it must be noted that there was n exchange of leadership and a sharing of roles and responsibilities which testified to the high personal quality of the men and women engaged in the preparation of teachers. On the whole, rivalries between organizations, localism, and partisanship have been subordinated to the purposes which control the preparation of teachers in a democracy.

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[24] *Ibid.*, p. 98.

Publication

The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education continued the publication of studies at an increasing rate. A committee, with representation from the Association for Student Teaching, studied the widely varying practices which were carried on in practice teaching. A paid consultant was added for the first time to this committee and a book was published under the title *Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education*. Successive editions of this book have now reached 5000 copies. A nationwide program of implementation was carried out in summer study groups. Student teaching is now regarded as a major part of the professional curriculum. It is so treated in this book. Throughout discussions of teacher education in the past hundred years, the parallel between teaching and medicine has been drawn. Both student groups need the direct and guided experience with those children or patients whom they serve, before being given responsibility for classroom or patient.

Many of these studies appeared in yearbooks. Others were printed separately. The number of the former is too long to list but those in book form are as follows:

General Education in Teachers Colleges, 1948—by Warren C. Lovinger

School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education, 1948—by John G. Flowers, Florence B. Stratemeyer, Allen D. Patterson, and Margaret Lindsey

Student Personnel Services, 1949—by Otto W. Snarr

Public Relations for Teacher Education, 1950—by G. H. Holmes and Others

Improvement of Living through the Schools, 1951—by Stewart B. Hamblen and Richmond Page

Implementing Programs of General Education for Teachers, 1953—by Chalmer A. Gross

Needed Research in Teacher Education, 1954—report of Joint Committee, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education and American Educational Research Association

Health Needs of School Children: A Report of Problems as Seen by Teachers, 1954—by Cooperative Committee of School Health Education

The conditions that arose during the war and the reorganization which brought different types of institutions together, emphasized the importance of new planning. In the amalgamation of the three associations into the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Constitution of the American Association of Teachers Colleges was accepted and it was agreed that its plan of work should be carried forward in the new organization. Many members were not accustomed to the application of standards and the principles on which an accredited list had been developed. A period of waiting was determined upon, therefore, to insure wider understanding and to provide for new procedures. The restricted activities in accrediting during the war pointed toward a thorough re-evaluation of the programs of all members of the American Association of Teachers Colleges as well as of the wider new membership.

The North Central Association had reorganized its quantitative standards for accreditation, on the basis of a more scientific study of its procedures. The new emphasis was upon qualitative measures for judgment, a refinement of the old quantitative measures. The experience of the North Central Association added to a widespread feeling about the inadequacy of the quantitative measures previously applied by the American Association of Teachers Colleges. A revision of the existing standards had become essential. The project was of such magnitude that it took the new Association, through the voluntary efforts of its committees, two years to develop a plan and the necessary instruments to carry out a major program of re-evaluation.

The dependence of the Association's program on the contributed services of its member institutions was a continuing source of strength. The participation of institutional heads in defining the problems, setting up the studies, and creating the instruments for the education of the full membership provided down-to-earth problems and workable procedures, but they were volunteer part-time workers.

Beginnings were made at the School for Executives in 1948 of the Committee on Studies and Standards. Tentative materials were submitted to the membership for criticism and were revised by technical specialists. By the end of 1950 the basic plans had been devised for an evaluation of a teacher-education program. These standards are too long to be quoted.[60] They follow the lines which had long been pursued, but with refinements that went with the change from quantitative to qualitative measures. General standards were to be covered by regional agencies. The new schedules referred to professional objectives.

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[60] Available at the Central Office with a Manual.

In the earlier days of accrediting, eagerness for status and a desire for recognition as a part of the system of higher education in the United States had been dominant motives. With widening experience and recognition had come security and dependence on a program of education for achieving desirable goals. The Association now proposed to apply these revised standards in an intervisitation program which might involve all those who had been brought together in the new American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. Some of these had long been accustomed to accreditation processes in the American Association of Teachers Colleges; some new members had the same fear of the application of standards which had existed when these were discussed twenty-five years before. Only gradually did the concept of the accreditation process as a school, in which all were teachers and all were learners, come to be understood. The plan for the intervisitation program, as an educational enterprise, was a far cry from the early beginnings of accreditation.

With the instruments for self-study prepared, difficulties were anticipated in their use. To prepare leaders the Executive Committee set up four clinics: at Indiana, Pennsylvania; Cedar Falls, Iowa; San Marcos, Texas; and Tuscaloosa, Alabama. Reports were prepared, the invitations were extended to fifteen heads of institutions in each section, and a clinic of three days' duration was held on each of the four campuses. With the experience thus gained, the instruments were revised and printed in quantity. The plans for intervisitation were developed and printed in a manual.

With the preparation of the instruments and the printing of the manual, and the training of more than sixty people who had participated in the clinics, the program of intervisitation was ready to go into action. It was designed to involve the participation of a total staff on a local campus in the preparation of the reports. The possibility of educating an entire local staff in regard to the total program for teacher education on any campus was a challenge to leadership, and naturally met with varying degrees of success. At its lowest point, the preparation of the reports could be limited to the activities of administrative officers, and the process viewed as another measure to obtain status. At its highest point, the instruments could be used for self-evaluation appropriate to the local institution, to create new understandings by each staff member about objectives, organization, and program. In motivation and process this was a big step from the earliest measures for accreditation.

The plan proposed the selection of a visiting team, varying in size, depending on the institution to be visited and the complexity of its program. The selection of the teams was entrusted to a special committee to secure appropriate representation. It was proposed to include a representative from every institution in one or more intervisitations across state lines. Representatives from state departments of education and the organized profession were invited. Funds had been sought from foundations to make it possible to engage special consultants. Outside funds were not available and it was necessary for the teams to be limited by the resources of the Association. An accumulated surplus of $50,000 was available to cover the traveling expenses of visiting teams.

It was proposed to complete this intervisitation for the entire membership in three years, an operation requiring a high degree of co-operation from a great many people. By the end of 1954 the program came to an end. At the annual meeting of the Association the Secretary reported on what had been done.[26]

The newly organized forces in the AACTE had learned to work together. Member institutions had engaged in carefully organized programs of self-evaluation. They had opened their doors to visits from outside the state for criticism and evaluation. For the visitors it had been a challenging and educative experience. Closer relationships had developed with state departments of education and the profession. The number of man days of contributed service by visiting teams was estimated at over three thousand. Representatives from the special fields in the Co-ordinating Committee were invited to join the visiting teams. Several of these special fields had developed criteria and schedules of their own to be used in appraising the quality of the program. The development of the schedules in co-operation with the Studies Committee of the AACTE involved many more persons in the evaluation process and opened new areas for co-operative effort. The inclusion of representatives of state departments of education on the visiting teams developed associations which laid the basis for co-operative action in that sector. Finally the presence of a representative of the active teaching group helped to lay the basis for the new accrediting group, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

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[26] American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, *Yearbook, 1951*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1951, pp. 9–17.

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In the first quarter-century normal schools and teachers colleges could not meet the standards for general education set up by the regional associations. In 1928 a few institutions in the Central States, having lengthened their curriculum and strengthened their resources, were admitted to the general college list of the North Central Association. The majority of the members of the AACTE had by 1950 become members of the regional associations. The intervisitation program developed closer relationships with all the regional associations by the inclusion of personnel from these groups on visiting teams and by consultation about co-operative procedures. The normal schools, beginning in isolation, had come a long way in finding the resources of higher education for the education of teachers.

The relative absence of compulsion and the external judgment by authority in the process of evaluation; the use of qualitative criteria and schedules prepared by research specialists; the involvement of staff members who must implement any improvements; the widening of experience by the study of other programs across state borders; the dependence on their own resources rather than upon a subsidized program; the strengthening of voluntary organized effort in the AACTE and related groups; the improvement in the climate of co-operative action and the skills of group leadership—these are only some of the values to be noted from this three-year program of intervisitation. Out of this experience comes the purpose to look ahead to the demands upon the preparation of teachers in our future democratic culture. What has been done thus far is only preparation for the continuing challenge of a dynamic society.

In 1953 the AACTE prepared a broadside to accent the changes that had come about since the formation of the American Association of Teachers Colleges in 1918 and to make clear the need for new planning. No better way suggests itself than to quote from this concise statement to make clear the changes that have come about and the spirit of those committed to the tasks of teacher education in the world today:

THE CHALLENGE

1918—1953

This is a time for decision! The AACTE will adopt a program that builds on its experience, takes account of its commitments and accepts its responsibilities for leadership. This statement has been prepared as a basis for discussions and decisions worthy of the challenges the Association now faces.

THEN and NOW in the Education of Teachers

THE BIG CHANGE

Organized institutional leadership has played a significant role

THEN there were two-year normal schools (138) and one-year county normal schools (128).

NOW there are four-year degree-granting teachers colleges and a few county normal schools.

THEN teachers colleges offered one-year and two-year curricula leading to certification.

NOW for the 48 states, Alaska, District of Columbia, and Hawaii 75% of the college and university students completing standard certificate requirements finish 120 semester hour curricula. (4%, the 30 semester hour curricula.)

THEN the teachers college offered the bachelor's degree as its highest degree.

NOW most teachers colleges offer curricula leading to the master's degree, some offer the doctor's degree. University colleges and schools of education offer three degrees.

THEN standards for normal schools were low and quantitative.

NOW standards for colleges for teacher education are high, professional and qualitative.

THEN the bachelor's degree for faculty members was typical. Six to 9% of the faculty members had Doctor's degrees.

NOW some institutions have as many as 50% of their faculties with Doctor's degrees.

THEN normal schools were not accredited members of regional associations.

NOW the 1952 AACTE Membership List numbers 263 of which all but 24 are members of regional accrediting associations.

THEN salaries were too low to attract and hold competent professors.

NOW salaries are better than in the average college in the same area. In university colleges and schools of education salaries are comparable to those paid in similar parts of the university.

THEN faculty members contributed little to educational literature and research.

NOW many productive scholars and leaders of educational thought are members of the faculties of teachers colleges and schools of education.

THEN curricula were of doubtful collegiate quality. Much time was devoted to a review of elementary and secondary school subjects, to "methods courses" in each subject to be taught, and little time to broadening the student's scholarly mastery of the larger fields of organized knowledge. The curricula were largely prescribed with few if any electives. Courses in art, music and other special fields were simple and largely methodological.

NOW curricula are fully accepted as collegiate in quality. Competence in elementary and secondary school subjects is demanded as an entrance requirement. Methods of teaching are incorporated in professional courses: psychology, child development, curriculum, professionalized subject matter. Forty or more per cent of the average undergraduate curricula is devoted to "general education" and a broader basis for areas of teaching specialization. A variety of curricula are offered with guidance services which adapt the student's program to his needs and abilities. There are extensive offerings in art, music and the other special fields for classroom teachers and for special teachers and supervisors.

THEN limited program of health education and few health services for the students.

NOW extensive programs of health, recreation and physical education with greatly increased health services for students.

THEN physical plants generally inadequate often in one large poorly arranged building.

NOW many teachers colleges have extensive well-planned campuses with modern specialized buildings.

THEN libraries were small and inadequately staffed. In 1921–22, 23% of the normal schools and teachers colleges had fewer than 5,000 volumes. 18% had over 20,000 volumes.

NOW libraries are in most cases adequate and staffed by professionally trained librarians. In 1949–50 only 4% of the public and private teachers colleges had fewer than 10,000 volumes. 15% had 50,000 or more.

THEN there was no international relations program.

NOW there is a special committee and an active program of student and faculty exchange.

THEN standards were derived from the regional patterns and committee consensus.

NOW standards are based on research and on wide participation by members, subject to continued revision.

THEN quantitative standards were applied to institutional programs by outside visitors.

NOW qualitative standards are used as inservice training involving entire staff as well as visiting team.

THEN a single visitor applied the standards.

NOW the intervisitation program involves long-term study by the faculty and evaluation by a team of visitors.

THEN the over-all program of the Association consisted of: an annual meeting with addresses and committee reports; special committee reports compiled by correspondence—no meetings of the committees; small yearbook with copies of the addresses and brief minutes of the meetings, no office bulletin; accredited list at four levels; dues-paying members and accredited institutions in one list; no research studies except by individual members, studies unrelated: no budget for studies or special reports.

NOW the over-all program of the Association consists of: annual meetings with addresses, panel discussions, exchange of experience meetings, schools for executives, and regional conferences; standing committees and numerous subcommittees meet to plan and interpret special studies made for the Association; the yearbook contains the principal addresses, results of a comprehensive program of research, resolutions and minutes of the meeting, an office Bulletin—15 issues in 1952. The accredited list has only one standard. Only accredited institutions are members. An extensive program of related research studies aims to improve the professional preparation of teachers. A budget supports the research service program, a central office and staff, a publication program and the self-study revisitation program.

THEN AATC included only normal schools and teachers colleges in its membership.

NOW the AACTE includes in its membership teachers colleges, university colleges and schools of education and some liberal arts colleges interested in teacher education.

THEN the AATC was almost alone in its program to improve teacher education.

NOW the professional and research prestige of the Association and the recognized strategic importance of teacher education have enabled the AACTE to cooperate in educational programs with:

> American Council on Education; Alfred P. Sloan Foundation—Applied Economics; Coordinating Committee on Collegiate Problems of Teacher Education; Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education; Danforth Foundation; Institute of International Education; Kellogg Foundation; National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification; National Commission on Accrediting; National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards; National Conference on College Health; National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, National Council of Chief State School Officers; National Education Association; National Safety Council; National School Boards Association; National Society for the Prevention of Blindness; Regional Accrediting Associations; Rockefeller Foundation; U.S. Office of Education; U.S. State Department.

THEN the Association was a voluntary group organized to help its membership do a better job of preparing teachers for America's schools.

NOW the Association is still a voluntary group organized to help its membership do a better job of preparing teachers for America's schools, but because of its increased size, added resources, accumulated "know-how" and professional esprit de corps, it can accomplish its purposes faster and more effectively.

The Commitments of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

The AACTE is committed to the continuation of a national voluntary association of teacher education institutions to provide a channel for member institutions to act effectively in the national interest.

The AACTE is committed to the continuing development of appropriate leadership for the education of teachers.

The AACTE is committed to continue its careful analysis of the standards and schedules and intervisitation procedures in order to select those phases which can best be used for institutional self evaluation and for staff stimulation.

The AACTE is committed to work with related organizations to conserve and improve the quality of teacher education.

The AACTE is committed to work for and support the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

The AACTE is committed to continue its protection of teacher education from unwise political influence.

The AACTE is committed to work with the Coordinating Committee on Collegiate Problems of Teacher Education to improve the quality of teacher education in the subject areas of instruction.

The AACTE is committed to continue its accrediting function until the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education assumes this responsibility.

The organization of the Commission on Teacher Preparation and Professional Standards by the National Education Association in 1948 made it clear that the organized teachers of the nation wished to have a share in the policies governing their professional preparation. The leaders in the American Association of Teachers Colleges recognized a potential ally and took still another step to bring agencies into constructive relationships. Members of the Commission on Teacher Preparation were placed on all the committees of the Association in an advisory or consultant relationship. This brought classroom teachers, superintendents of schools, and chief state school officers into the policy-making bodies of the Association. In its initial statement of purposes the Commission had declared its intention to develop an accrediting process. This might have resulted in struggle for power, but the interrelationships among the members of these groups made it difficult to tell where one group began and the other left off. The Commission and the Executive Committee of the American Association of Teachers Colleges early formed the habit of holding their meetings at the same time and of providing further means for acquaintance and discussion. It soon became evident that a new alignment of forces might bring greater gains for professional preparation than would have been possible with any one of the organizations operating by itself.

A new organization, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, emerged.

The AACTE has turned over the direct responsibility for accreditment to this group of organizations and is applying itself to those other means of improvement for the education of teachers which have proved helpful in bringing desirable change. The challenges for those who believe in the values of a democratic society were never greater.

Bibliographical Note

Those who are interested to go to the sources of information about the development of education for teachers in the United States will find the following general references useful: (1) the printed proceedings of the National Education Association; (2) the Reports of the United States Commissioner of Education; (3) the Reports of the Survey of Teacher Education in the United States by the Office of Education of the United States Government—contain an extended bibliography; (4) the volumes reporting the work of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education; and (5) the Annual Reports of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

3

ISSUES AND PROBLEMS IN TEACHER EDUCATION *

To prepare teachers competent to give the educational leadership which will guard and strengthen democracy is today's challenge to American colleges and universities. It is a challenge as difficult to meet as it is crucial that it be met. This chapter is designed to raise and pinpoint the major problems and issues with which all workers in pre-service teacher education must wrestle in accepting this challenge. No attempt is made here to propose ways for dealing with these problems. The major characteristics of the scholarship required of today's teacher and the essential nature of an educational experience and what it means for defining the curriculum of teacher education are considered, but only as they, by their very nature, suggest problems to which attention must be given. Suggestions for dealing with these problems and issues as they relate to curriculum and instruction, personnel work, and administration are explored in subsequent chapters.

What Is the Nature of the Goals We Seek?

For the most part educators are agreed upon the over-all goals of teacher education. They desire to prepare teachers who will contribute to the improvement of society in three ways: as active citizens, as educational leaders in their communities, and as guides of children and youth helping them to become informed, active citizens. To achieve this end, what basic concepts must be kept uppermost in the thinking of those who share responsibility for the program of teacher education?

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* This chapter was prepared by Professor Florence B. Stratemeyer, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The Teacher's Leadership Role Requires Scholarship Directed Toward Action

In Chapter I there is outlined the essential competence required of each person if he is to make the contribution expected and needed in a democracy. In an age in which mass media of communication extend the range of problems and situations in which each individual shares, society can ill afford persons who act without giving thought to their action. Lively intellectual curiosity, reasoned judgment, action based upon reflective thinking, and constructive attitudes are essentials in a changing society such as ours where invention and creativity make fixed and patterned behavior ineffective.

Responsible himself for acting thoughtfully, the teacher also is charged with helping others to develop and use their powers for personal and social good. Action based upon reflection implies respect for facts, discipline in the process of analysis and synthesis, discriminating judgment, and a high sense of responsibility for what one says and does. For the teacher to guide his own actions intelligently is no small task. For him thus to guide children and youth, each in the light of his potential ability, requires positive leadership. Clearly, not all who may wish to teach can develop the qualities needed.

The teacher's leadership role calls for a high order of scholarship. It must be based on more than the accumulation of knowledge, or even the assimilation of knowledge. While facts are the raw material of thinking, scholarship requires reflection—seeing the relationship of facts to each other, to action in new directions, to coping with personal and social situations. Those who are to be teachers must possess competence characterized by: (1) *knowledge plus reflection* upon the meaning and implication of that knowledge; (2) *recognition of the relation of particular knowledge to other fields,* and a usable *acquaintance with sources of reliable information;* (3) *continued search for truth,* for greater understanding and insight into new relationships, using methods appropriate to the disciplines involved; and (4) *courage* to defend one's considered and independent judgment when facts and changing conditions suggest new and different conclusions. These are essentials of all sound scholarship.

For the teacher-scholar another dimension is imperative—(5) creativity in the *translation* of ideas and ideals *into action* in service to others. The very word "profession" and the nature of the teacher's work demand that he go beyond the search for greater understanding and insight to the use of knowledge in facilitating change in society and in helping others to take an intelligent part in society. This means helping others search out, compare, weigh, and organize facts; simplifying concepts and clarifying confusions; understanding the human relations which develop in association with individuals and groups as they put ideas and feelings to work. It is a scholarship directed toward positive action based on historical perspective, critical study of contemporary society, and understanding of interpersonal relations and group dynamics. It is scholarship conceived both as intelligent problem solving and as emotionally mature expression of feelings and ideas. It must be developed with reference both to academic fields and to professional education.

A Basic Question in Teacher Education, Are We Achieving the Goals We Seek?

Although there is essential agreement on over-all goals, differences appear when goals are stated in terms of the means used to attain them. Some educators believe the broad goals can be most effectively realized by concentrating on intellectual development; others hold that social and emotional adjustment and effective human relations are of equal importance. Some, judging by the experiences provided students, focus on skill in dealing verbally with ideas, whereas others are concerned about the translation of ideas into action. In some programs stress is placed on critical study of problems of the past and their solutions as the best way to prepare the student for dealing with current problems in after college years. In other curricula emphasis is on the study of issues in contemporary society, the past being used as it serves to illuminate the present. Some teachers value the mastery of organized bodies of knowledge; others regard these bodies of knowledge chiefly as resources which help students deal with interests and problems. In some college programs emphasis in academic areas is on the scholarship of the individual and citizen while in others the work is related to the needs of the teacher. In still others primary concern is with professional goals. Educators are equally sincere in giving these widely differing answers to the question of goals and the means for their achievement.

Workers in pre-service teacher education need to seek answers to three major questions. First, are the desired goals being realized? What is the nature and what is the quality of the scholarship of the young teachers graduating from our colleges and universities?

Is it a scholarship which functions in the threefold activities of the teacher as individual, citizen, and professional worker? Second, which major focus will best achieve the necessary competence? Lastly, what do the answers to these questions suggest for a conception of the curriculum of teacher education?

How Shall the College Curriculum Be Conceived?

Currently the college curriculum is defined in three ways: (1) the program of courses, (2) the in-class and out-of-class experiences for which the college bears responsibility, and (3) the total life experiences of the student during his years at college. The third is the most comprehensive and encompasses the first two, and more. The second, in turn, includes and extends beyond the sequence of college courses referred to in the first definition. Those who hold the first or second concept think of the curriculum as an organized means through which the student can receive the stimulation, counsel, and instructional guidance of a teaching staff. Those who accept the third position add to the organized program those informal and non-guided activities which are a part of the student's life in and outside of the college community. Which of the three ways of looking at the curriculum gives the greatest promise of contributing to the scholarship needed by the prospective teacher?

The Student's Curriculum Is More Than the Sequence of Courses Taken

Whether or not a definition of the college curriculum includes the student's out-of-class activities, they must be taken into account in considering his growth toward desired goals. The "bull session" in the dormitory at which sorority pledging and exclusive membership clauses are discussed may bring real insight into problems concerning minority groups. Class work relating to the United Nations' Declaration of Human Rights may take on new meaning from the informal after-dinner conversation about the pending dismissal of a staff member because of alleged communist views. Work as a member of the cast of *Our Town* sponsored by the Drama Club may be the activity through which a particular student learns more about clear enunciation and gains more in poise and self-confidence than through his college course in *Voice and Diction.* These and a host of other experiences, to which courses may or may not contribute, are a part of the life of every college student. They are phases of student life that have inherent within them values which relate to the educational goals sought. They provide the setting in which the student actually tests ideas and theories of behavior and has practice in interpersonal relationships and the use of democratic values. Because such experiences do contribute to the student's growth toward educational goals they need to be considered a part of the college curriculum.

All Experiences of College Living for Which the College Bears Responsibility Make Up the College Curriculum

Since the student's work in college courses provides only a part, although a most important part, of his learning, it seems inadequate to define the curriculum as simply the program of courses. On the other hand, to include all experiences of the student as proposed in the third definition suggests a responsibility which few colleges could assume in the foreseeable future, even if it were thought desirable to do so. It seems realistic to conceive the college curriculum as the experiences for which the college bears responsibility. However, this second concept carries with it the recognition that the student's in-college experiences will be affected by influences for which the college bears no responsibility but which are a real part of his total living and learning during the years that he is in college. For example, a change in scheduling of college courses may be made necessary by the fact that students need to undertake remunerative work away from the college. Further, for an individual this work responsibility may create an overload. Through counseling this student may be helped to find a job which makes a more direct contribution to his educational needs at the same time that it provides money. The college is aware of and relates itself to such activities when they affect student experiences for which the college has responsibility.

Colleges and universities are moving toward the acceptance of this wider definition of the curriculum. Some, such as Antioch, Sarah Lawrence, and Western Washington State College, apparently have implemented the concept quite fully. Others are taking steps to include as integral parts of the curriculum, along with academic and professional courses, activities such as student self-government, student operation of the college book store and cafeteria, student direction of residence-hall living, management of the college paper and sections of the local paper, part-time employment at the college, responsibility for bulletin boards, sponsoring of assemblies and other all-college activities, club activities of various kinds, participation in the work of curriculum development and other faculty committees, sharing in the writing of the college catalog, contributing to decision-making with respect to administrative policies and procedures to improve the college program.

Special Problems Must Be Considered in Developing a Curriculum Thus Defined

Acceptance of this definition of the college curriculum at once points up new problems. In addition to the usual questions relating to the selection of content and experiences to be included in courses, there are others having to do with the selection of out-of-class activities in terms of the potential learning which they provide. Not all activities in which the student engages as a part of college living are equally important learning experiences, and he may previously have acquired the learnings which some afford. Which out-of-class aspects of college living offer most for the development of the scholarship needed by today's citizen-teacher? Which will be most fruitful for different students? Are there some in which *all* students should engage? At what stage in a student's development will given experiences have most meaning and greatest learning value and what proportion of a student's curriculum should be in course work and what in out-of-class activities which are a part of college life? How should work in courses and in other aspects of college living be related, if at all?

A second group of questions clusters around the guidance of out-of-class learning experiences. Problems similar to those which must be dealt with in courses as well as some which are unique arise in the guidance of these aspects of college living for which the college has responsibility. Who should guide out-of-class activities? How guide them so as to provide students the freedom and the sense of responsibility which they cherish and at the same time make these experiences an educational laboratory in which mistakes may be regarded as an opportunity for reflection and learning? How can growth resulting from these activities be systematically evaluated? These questions must be thoughtfully considered if the curriculum—all the experiences for which the college has responsibility—is to be the means through which students can take advantage of the stimulation, instruction, and counseling of the staff. Other problems relating both to work in courses and in out-of-class activities in a program of teacher education are considered in the pages which follow.

What Shall Be the Nature and Content of College Experiences?

What must be the nature and content of the total range of the student's experiences if the needed understandings, skills, and attitudes are to be realized? As stated previously, college teacher and student must decide how to select from a wide range of possible undertakings those which will contribute most to realizing the goals sought. This is a responsibility of many facets. Because of its complexity, only the basic problems and something of the range of answers suggested by present practices are considered in this chapter. In the chapters which follow, practices are more fully explored in an effort to identify those which give promise of providing the desired learning.

Scholarship Develops Through Educative Experiences That Are Meaningful and Purposeful

The word "experience" has been used in the preceding pages to mean the interaction of the college student with his environment. Experience, as Dewey points out, is a continuum. Each experience both "takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after." [1] It is the central problem of education to provide *educative experiences* —those which contribute to further creative experiences judged desirable in terms of the needs of the individual and the social standards of the culture to which he belongs. These are experiences which include reflection upon the meaning of what is experienced and which increase ability to direct the course of subsequent activities so that desirable changes are brought about in both the individual and his environment.

Not all experiences are thus educative. In fact they can be miseducative, and are just that when they have "the effect of arresting or distorting the growth of further experience," [2] when they cause insensitivity or unresponsiveness, when they contribute to carelessness, or when, as a result of their disconnectedness, they lead to confusion and lack of self-direction. Experiences may be miseducative when very meaningful to the individual and directly related to his purposes, if those purposes and goals are negative and arrest further positive growth in keeping with the values of the society. They may be equally miseducative when the area of study itself is not related to the individual's goals and purposes and is lacking in meaning.

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[1] Dewey, John, *Experience and Education.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1938, p. 27.
[2] *Ibid.,* p. 13.

Consider, for example, the student who continues in a course which is too difficult and for which he does not have the necessary background. What meaning can the situation have for him other than fear of failure and a struggle to "pass" the course as a necessary hurdle in achieving the desired grade or diploma? To attain these goals or purposes, which do not relate to the content of the course, the student may find it necessary to employ methods which are negative in their effect upon him. He may neglect other courses, relinquish needed rest, sacrifice valuable social activities, or, depending upon the pressure, he may use unethical short-cut methods in his effort "to get through." What is this student actually learning? Clearly, he is not learning what is intended by the persons who are guiding him.

The situation need not be so drastic. Take the instance of the student whose work includes content which he can understand but which has little or no meaning for him other than that it satisfies a college requirement. He may not be forced to the extremes used by his classmate, but his purposes, too, are outside the content itself. Rather than thinking and struggling with the ideas inherent in the subject matter, he may devise ways and means of memorizing the material for "examination purposes." What has he learned in the process of earning course credit? How much of the content has he really learned in terms of "use in other situations"? Yet, are not his teachers, advisers, and administrators responsible for his increased skills in using undesirable short cuts in memorizing, in forgetting?

A basic problem of the college teacher is to help students select and develop experiences so that from them they learn the skills, attitudes, and knowledge which they actually can use and which provide for continuing growth in positive directions. This selection depends both on the goals sought and on the nature of the learning process. In Chapter I some of the factors which condition learning are discussed. Motivation, the learner's past experience and present purpose, individual differences, active involvement in the learning situation, the significance of generalization—all apply to the learning of the prospective teacher as well as to that of children and youth. The same fundamental *principles* govern learning at all ages [3] and in all parts of the educational program. Three of these principles have special meaning for the selection of learning experiences to be included in the teacher-education curriculum.

First, what is learned depends upon the *meaning* a situation has for each individual and upon his *purposes*. Studies in the fields of psychology and human development show the intimate and personal nature of motivation in learning.[4] The individual responds to a situation in order to accomplish some definite purpose either set up by him or genuinely accepted as his own. When the student does not comprehend the objectives related to an area of study or sees little value to him in what he is expected to learn, when the situation in which he finds himself has little meaning for him, he tends to set up purposes of his own. As noted in the preceding illustrations the student who sees no other reason for his efforts may be content to accumulate facts for their own sake. He may be satisfied to carry out an assignment as directed, with little understanding of why it was done that way and what it was supposed to accomplish; to use skills and understandings only when instructors or others in authority demand them. Motives such as a desire to succeed, to graduate, or to be well recommended may become the only goals and purposes of the college student who is unable to relate himself to his work in more fundamental ways. Where this is true, there is little reason to believe that he is developing competence described earlier as essential to scholarship. To assure the *desired learning* it *must be an integral part of experiences which have or can have meaning for the student.* Then the learner's purpose and that of his teachers have a common base, and efforts are not divided. This does not mean that the college instructor may not have in mind goals beyond those then recognized by the student. On the contrary, the teacher's greater insight enables him to help the student gradually to widen his goals to include new and better purposes.

When experiences are meaningful a second essential of effective learning is more likely to be realized, namely, that the more closely learning *experiences resemble the situations in which the learning will be used* the more adequate they will be.[5] This is not to say that all college activities can or need to duplicate those which the student will meet in life, but it does point to the value of using like situations whenever possible. Present evidence regarding the conditions that foster transfer of learning suggests that where this is not feasible every effort should be made to call attention to any similarities and to provide for generalizing. When experiences are meaningful they are more likely to be related to others in which the student engages or will engage. He then can be helped to reflect on them, to see similarities, to generalize and to use generalizations in meeting new situations. The ability to use past experiences intelligently in solving new problems is a fundamental need in a changing society such as ours in which prospective teachers as well as children must be prepared for an unpredictable future.

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[3] There is a growing body of evidence suggesting that this statement applies to all but the very earliest years.

[4] Cantor, Nathaniel, *The Teaching-Learning Process.* New York: The Dryden Press, 1953, pp. 286–312.

Jersild, Arthur T., *In Search of Self.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University Bureau of Publications, 1952, pp. 9–21.

National Society for the Study of Education, *The Psychology of Learning,* Forty-first Yearbook, Pt. II. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942, pp. 289–331.

———. *Learning and Instruction,* Forty-ninth Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950, pp. 36–68; 129–155.

———. *General Education,* Fifty-first Yearbook, Pt. I. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1952, pp. 53–58.

Snygg, Donald, and Combs, Arthur, *Individual Behavior.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1949, pp. 52–77; 10–33.

The third guide to the nature and content of learning experiences is reflected in a statement of Sophocles made more than 400 years B.C., "One must learn by doing the thing; for though you think you know it you have no certainty until you try." The belief that learning about desirable action will automatically result in commitment to such action is denied in educational literature and by the experience of teachers working at all levels.[6] For example, very purposeful learning about first aid during the last war did not guarantee intelligent action in the care of illness or injury. In like manner, learning about a racial or religious minority does not necessarily affect the attitude of the learner toward members of a particular group. The response of a college senior to a bill before the state legislature for a non-segregated school system is a case in point: "Yes, I did say that all children should have equal educational opportunities and that there was no need in our city for separate schools. Now that it could happen I am not so sure." To know whether the learner can and does act on new ideas and understandings requires that he have opportunity to use them in a variety of situations. Meaningful *experiences provide opportunities to use*

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[5] Cronbach, Lee J., *Educational Psychology*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1954, pp. 245–275.

Cronbach, L. J., and Andrews, T. G., "Transfer of Training," in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, W. S. Monroe, Editor, Revised Edition. New York: Macmillan, 1950.

National Society for the Study of Education, *Learning and Instruction*, pp. 117–125.

———, *General Education*, pp. 65–68.

[6] National Society for the Study of Education, *General Education*, pp. 58–62.

Pace, C. R., *They Went to College*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1941.

ideas and behavior appropriately. This applies both to actual participation in situations of everyday living and to making judgments based upon the study of situations presented orally or in writing. Both are important responsibilities of today's citizen-teacher.

These essentials of effective learning suggest a number of questions to the curriculum worker with reference to the nature and content of experiences to be included in the teacher-education program. Clearly, not all of the cultural heritage can be transmitted. If quality of the student's experience is made a first criterion, what will be the nature of the content of the curriculum? Will work with discrete bodies of knowledge, thought by specialists to cover the essential elements of the major fields, lead to further creative experiences in the direction of desired scholarship? When and under what conditions? Or will a curriculum in which subject matter is selected from organized bodies of knowledge as it is needed in the study of significant personal and social problems better provide for desired change in behavior? Should the answer be the same for all aspects of the curriculum—for specialization as well as for general education, for professional and general education alike? To what extent is the answer to be determined by the background and special competence of the individual student?

Answers given to the foregoing questions will affect the position taken regarding such problems in the area of professional education as the place of courses dealing with methods of teaching. Should such courses deal with general methods or with the special methods of a particular field of instruction? Should courses in teaching methods be considered a prerequisite to student teaching or should understanding of methods grow out of and be an integral part of the student-teaching experience? Will the prospective teacher be prepared to meet teaching problems when the content of professional education stresses methods of teaching, or should the emphasis be on the nature of human development, learning principles, and acquaintance with instructional materials?

The same basic principles govern learning in class and out-of-class activities. When used in the selection of non-course experiences for which the college has responsibility several other questions arise. Should the student be advised to choose those which relate closely to his work in course or should they be selected primarily for their contribution to areas of growth not otherwise provided for? When should activities be engaged in chiefly because of student interest; when because of interest plus potential learning value for the student?

The nature and quality of experiences provided prospective teachers vary widely among the different teacher-preparing institutions. Some colleges answer the foregoing questions through focusing on logically organized bodies of knowledge found in selected texts. Students in other colleges are working in integrated courses, drawing upon the fields of social science, natural science, the arts and philosophy as they study such basic social problems as the wise use of natural resources, the activities and procedures of pressure groups, propaganda analysis, implications of increased leisure and ways in which it is used. In professional education the nature of experiences is equally varied. In one college the student takes a series of courses each dealing with an organized body of knowledge—human growth and development, the psychology of learning, tests and measurements. In another college, course content relates to the problems and concerns of the student as he observes and works with children and youth in laboratory situations. In some institutions a large part of the work of the prospective elementary-school teacher is centered in a series of courses dealing with the teaching of various instructional fields—teaching of reading, teaching of the social sciences, teaching of general science, teaching of arithmetic. In other colleges the student's work is focused on the fundamental principles governing learning and what these principles mean for the selection and guidance of the experiences of children or youth. Some colleges make no reference to student activities other than those which are a part of courses, some make provision for social activities, while others draw upon the range of available non-course college activities as a regular part of the student's planned curriculum. These differences emphasize the need for further study of the nature of experiences which will most fully contribute to preparing the teacher desired for our times.

Both Direct and Vicarious Experiences Give Meaning to Ideas and Action

The quality of experience which makes up the student's curriculum is of such importance that at least one other group of questions must be considered. These relate to the place of direct and vicarious experience in general education, in fields of specialization, and in professional education. *Direct experience* refers to the actual living through a situation or event. It implies direct association with and participation in an on-going activity. For some students active participation will be needed to gain deeper understanding of the meaning and significance of the experience and underlying concepts. For others, equal involvement and understanding will be achieved by participation through observation. For example, attendance at a juvenile court or work in a settlement house by members of a class in sociology might be a direct experience which would give added meaning to discussion of the nature of juvenile delinquency and how it can be and is being met. In the class discussion of this problem there could be provided other direct learning—carrying on an effective discussion, holding bias and emotions in control, using resource materials. The work of the prospective teacher with children or youth in student teaching is direct experience as is work in the chemistry laboratory and art studio. *Vicarious experience,* on the other hand, is the consideration of a situation or event with understanding but without *direct* involvement. It is an ideational experience that takes on meaning through the use of indirect or second-hand means such as reading, conversation, using pictorial forms.

Both types—vicarious and direct—have a place in each aspect of the program of teacher education. A spurious dichotomy seems to have grown up in the thinking of some educators in associating intellectual pursuits with vicarious experience and practical endeavors with direct experience. The fallacy of such a dichotomy is suggested by recalling that truly educative experience requires the intellectualizing of practical pursuits and vicarious experiences frequently deal with applied concepts. However, from the misconception two suggestions emerge for the educator. First, there is indicated a need for an educational program which will help college students to acquire the requisite comprehension to carry out their activities intelligently instead of blindly. Certainly it is true that many who now engage in practical pursuits are not aware of the intellectual content and concepts upon which their actions depend. The second suggestion grows out of the half-understanding of ideas and the unassimilated "knowledge" which has resulted from dealing with abstract ideas without the needed background of direct experience. An ideational (vicarious) experience becomes meaningful and influential in the life of the student in terms of his background of experience. As Dewey phrased it, ". . . It is only in experience that any theory (or intellectual content) has vital and verifiable significance." [7] This suggests the need to provide direct experience when the student does not have adequate previous contacts by which he can meaningfully interpret a new situation, or when previous situations have given false concepts and understanding. Direct involvement is also needed when the student can thus be helped to see his needs more clearly or when he desires to test his ability to act in keeping with his developing concepts and skills.

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[7] Dewey, John, *Democracy and Education.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1916, p. 169.

Both types of experience have equal worth if appropriately used to meet student needs. One student may find the class discussion of delinquency meaningful and productive of sound thinking. For this to be true for another student, it may be necessary to provide direct experience. Perhaps the "age-old notion that knowledge is derived from a higher source than is practical activity, and possesses a higher and more spiritual worth" [8] can best be dispelled by keeping clearly in mind what is known about the learning process. For verbal pursuits to have action concepts there must be concrete imagery which is exact and accurate. This suggests that when the student has not had previous direct contact with the situations and concepts under consideration or with similar or related events, direct experience should be provided if at all possible. When there has been pertinent previous direct experience, vivid and accurate imagery can be a part of vicarious experience.

In some colleges student teaching is the only direct experience provided in the college program and is a final test of the student's ability to implement the preceding theoretical study. In other institutions student teaching is but one of a number of direct experiences throughout the four years of college. For some students, direct involvement is chiefly in the nature of observation while those attending other colleges are active participants in all such experiences. For the latter students, observation, as such, may come late in the college program. In some institutions direct contacts are limited to professional courses and school situations; in others they are also related to work in academic areas and include a wide range of community contacts. These, and other differences, reflect the need to give thought to such questions as the following.

First, there are questions that relate to student need and readiness for such experiences. Do the backgrounds of most college students suggest that direct experiences should be primarily a part of the work in professional education, or are they needed also to give meaning to general education? Are direct experiences equally needed in general and professional education to help the student test his ability to act on the concepts and principles to which he subscribes intellectually? How are student need and readiness for a particular type of activity—direct or vicarious—determined? There are also decisions to be made regarding the nature and organization of the direct experiences to be provided. What kinds of experiences are desirable prior to student teaching in order to develop student readiness for responsible leadership with children? What should the program provide following student teaching in order to capitalize on the learning provided by that experience? In terms of continuity and student maturation what are the relative gains to be derived from a full-time student-teaching experience for a shorter period of time as against part-time teaching over a longer period; from a single longer period with a particular pupil group versus two or more shorter periods spaced to provide college study between and contact with more than one teaching situation? What is the place of observation as a direct experience and what is required if it is to be meaningful? When does provision for individual differences necessitate differentiation in the length of a period of direct experience, such as student teaching, as contrasted with variation in the activities within a stated period, or added post-student teaching activities?

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[8] *Ibid.*, p. 306.

Decisions regarding these and related questions bear directly on the problem of the use of direct experiences of college living as a part of the curriculum. The decisions made and the degree to which they are effectively carried out determine whether the student will really learn what the college considers it is essential for him to learn; whether he will act in terms of what he believes and understands.

Goals Influence the Selection of Experiences

Most colleges and universities are responsible for preparing teachers for many different types of positions. To meet current needs in secondary schools, teachers must be prepared to work in core programs, in the various academic fields, in class and non-class student activities, and in such special fields as music, art, and health and physical education. The prospective teacher who plans to work in the elementary school must be ready to guide the total range of the pupils' activities including play, rest, and lunch, and to work alone or in co-operation with a specialist to open the world of music and art. In addition, a number of institutions prepare individuals to work in the special fields in both elementary and secondary schools. Meeting adequately the needs of these several groups raises the basic problem of what parts of the curriculum should be the same for each of these professional workers and at what points there should be differentiated experiences. This issue involves consideration of such sub-questions as the following. Should *general education*—that part of the program which focuses on the student's life as a responsible human being and citizen—be the same for both elementary- and secondary-school teachers? What does scholarship imply concerning the nature of *specialization* for the elementary-school teacher; for the teacher of high-school youth? To what extent do the educational situations met by teachers of young children and by those working with high-school pupils indicate that *professional education* should be the same? Is it important for those who plan to work with high-school youth to understand the elementary school and for the elementary-school teacher to become acquainted with the problems of high-school education?

Currently, a few colleges are experimenting with a single five-year curriculum designed to prepare the student to work in either the elementary or secondary school. Many institutions offer a common program of general education with differentiation in areas of specialization. In professional education also there are widely varied practices. On the one hand there are the colleges that provide separate curricula—with a possible common course or two such as *Orientation to Education* and *Educational Psychology*—for teachers who plan to work in the various parts of the educational system. Then there are programs which provide many common experiences in professional education with differentiation chiefly in student teaching and in methods courses. Which of these or other plans gives greatest promise for realizing the desired goals?

Relationships among Experiences in the Several Parts of the Curriculum Need to Be Considered

As implied in the preceding paragraphs, courses and out-of-class activities contribute to one or more of three major parts of the prospective teacher's curriculum. First, there is the work in general education designed to further development as a person and as a thoughtfully active citizen. Second, there are the courses and other activities which contribute to needed specialized competence in the areas in which the student plans to teach. Finally, there are the experiences in professional education which help him to guide children and youth effectively and to contribute to the work of the school as an educational unit. This threefold classification is useful primarily for purposes of discussion. Actually the parts interlock one with the other. In fact, these very interrelationships among the three parts of the teacher-education curriculum create a cluster of problems.

Some questions arise from the need in effective learning to see relationships and to use previous learnings appropriately in new situations. Much of the essential content of general education is the very content with which the teacher will be dealing as he works with children and youth. How can this be related effectively to the more intensive study by the student in his fields of specialization? Is a general education course in an area an appropriate foundation for the student who intends to specialize in that area? Another question, one of the most controversial, centers in the relation of work in the academic areas to professional education. Should courses in general education and in the student's fields of academic specialization be professionalized; that is, should the professional implications of such courses be considered at the time they are taught? For example, will there be greater functional learning for the prospective teacher when the study of atomic energy includes a consideration of such professional problems as children's questions in this area, materials appropriate for different age groups, and ways of explaining basic concepts to pupils? Or would it be better to discuss these and related problems of the teacher in a professional course dealing with the elementary-school curriculum or the teaching of science, in which the student is responsible for relating the work in academic subjects to professional areas?

The importance in the learning process of relating present and past experiences also suggests questions regarding interrelationships between the high-school and college curriculum. How can the student's experiences in general education be articulated with his previous work in general education in high school? What does the increasingly higher quality of general education provided by the high school mean for the courses and other activities included in the college program?

Basic to each of the foregoing is the question of how to keep general education, subject specialization, and professional education in proper balance. What proportion of the total curriculum should be allocated to each of these to provide the growth which will give the insight and understanding needed for educational leadership. To achieve that growth most effectively should such divisions be maintained?

A look at present practice indicates productive study and experimentation in general education by a number of colleges in an effort to build on the student's high-school background and to achieve more adequately the goals for which the general education was designed. Decisions relating to the professional treatment of academic areas seem to have been made chiefly in the special fields of art, music, and physical education. The balance between professional education and work in academic areas varies widely. For example, in one college the minimum of ten semester hours in professional education required for state certification is offered in the senior year. In another, approximately 50 per cent of the total four-year program is given to courses in education and to professionally treated content courses. Colleges are aware of these problems and of their importance in developing a sound program of teacher education.

How Shall the Experiences of Students Be Guided?

What is really learned and what goals are actually realized are determined quite as much by the way in which a selected experience is guided as by its nature. When efforts are made to achieve functional learning, many things must be considered—the needs and purposes of students, ways in which they differ in ability and interests, their role in planning and guiding their own activities, how horizons are widened and purposes modified and changed in desired directions, how students' concerns can be related meaningfully to larger social issues, ways in which individuals are stimulated to continue to develop after their college years. These and others of the many facets with which the college teacher deals as he guides learning must be properly related if desired goals are to be achieved. This requires thoughtful consideration of a number of problems.

Horizons Are Widened by Relating Immediate Needs and Concerns of Students to Larger Social Problems

The verb "teach" has two objects: (1) teach *somebody* (2) *something*. The teacher is both an interpreter of the student with whom he works and an interpreter of the society in which the college youth is growing up. The art of teaching lies in relating these two aspects of the teacher's responsibility. How can the needs, interests, and purposes of the student and fundamental social problems be related so as to lead to disciplined handling of both personal and social situations? Does this mean that all learning must be directly associated with and grow out of the student's immediate concerns and interests? Are these broad enough to encompass present as well as future demands of life? Must the student see the values of an experience as immediate for him? When and under what conditions is he mature enough to make deferred values his own?

The nature of student needs and purposes suggests other closely related questions which must also be answered by those responsible for the learning of the college student. "Need" as used in this volume refers to an inadequacy of the student in relation to his present optimum development. It affects meeting both immediate and probable future situations. It grows out of the demands which an individual will make upon himself and those which society will make upon him. Needs may or may not be identified and accepted by the student at any given time. "Purpose," on the other hand, is used to indicate a directed drive toward a goal. The goal represents the desired result, while purpose refers to the present thought about this future situation that motivates or directs behavior. Both needs and purposes represent different degrees of disturbance to the individual. Some, with little depth, can be satisfied quickly and are recognized as transitory and possibly superficial. Others require time for thought and study and are considered more basic and genuine.

The significance of purpose in learning and the responsibility of the college to help students to examine their genuine needs raise other questions for the college teacher. Answers to the central question—how can the student's purposes be meaningfully related to immediate and long-range needs—involve consideration of such related questions as those which follow. Can experiences which center in the current concerns and interests (purposes) of college youth be guided so as to provide meaningfully for the depth of study and penetration of ideas basic to the scholarship of the teacher? What are the essential elements in study which is characterized by depth and penetration? What must be the nature of guidance if work on contemporary problems and immediate situations is not to preclude the necessary understanding of historical backgrounds and trends? What is involved in developing purposes which value a spirit of objectivity and thoroughness in a search for truth? What does competence to act on principle require in terms of the guidance of learning?

While it is difficult to judge the answers being given to these questions in practice, a range of responses is evident. Some college teachers relate their work to the logic of their subject, holding that the college student can deal with deferred values and believing that the teacher's primary function is the transmitting of knowledge. Other teachers, equally concerned with subject matter, also show how it is used in dealing with practical situations. Still others seek to discover students' needs and concerns and help them bring appropriate subject matter to bear. For different class groups these teachers modify the order in which subject matter is considered. A number of teachers are experimenting with student records and co-operative planning of course work. The practices of the college teacher are related to his concept of the learning process and the student's part in it.

The Student's Role in Self-Direction and Self-Evaluation Is Important

The significance of the learner's purpose in effective learning suggests exploration of his role in the selection and planning of his college experiences. In arriving at a decision certain sub-questions arise, including those bearing on evaluation. How can the co-operative planning of experiences be guided effectively? How can this become an important professional experience in terms of planning co-operatively with children? How can students be helped to evaluate their interests, to see the relationships of these interests to present and future needs, and thus to set valid goals for their efforts and activities? How can they be helped to appraise their success in the achievement of goals? Shall the competence needed by today's teacher be judged with reference to knowledge acquired, to ability to use knowledge in interpreting situations, or to the translation of ideas into action in meeting situations?

Current practices already mentioned suggest the varied roles of the student in different colleges and in various classes in the same college. In some situations his role is primarily that of listening and carrying out assignments. In others teacher and students co-operatively plan, carry out, and evaluate class activities. In still others students are expected to carry a dual role—following directions in classes and assuming full responsibility in out-of-class activities. Current practice is as widespread and varied as are the possible combinations of these roles. In like manner, the student's part in evaluation of his progress and growth ranges from that of recipient of the reactions of his teachers to co-maker of a co-operatively determined judgment. Here, too, the practice followed is related to the college teacher's understanding of the learning process and the goals he hopes to achieve."

Individual Differences Must Be Recognized

Differences among students, both as to abilities and interests, create other problems for those who guide learning experiences in teacher education. One such problem is that of meeting individual needs and purposes in a class or other group situation. The complexity of this problem is increased in those situations where students have widely varied vocational objectives. In any group situation—class or non-course activity—how build on and provide for differences in background and intellectual ability; how meet individual purposes without sacrifice of group purposes? How should work in academic fields and non-course college living be guided in order to meet the needs of both the prospective teacher and the student whose interests relate mainly to his role as an individual and citizen? Should the same courses and out-of-class experiences in general education be offered for the prospective teacher and for students with other occupational goals? Another major problem is the place of elective courses in the teacher-education curriculum to meet individual needs. Should the curriculum be essentially prescribed with courses and other activities selected in terms of the needs and interests of the student—or should it be composed of requirements plus free electives?

Conversations with students from different colleges and observation of teachers and students at work in teacher-preparing institutions suggest that practice varies as greatly here as on other basic curriculum issues. For example, in one college some seven or eight students work with a faculty adviser individually and through a "personal guidance seminar." Each student is helped to appraise his strengths and needs, to select courses and other activities suggested by the appraisal, and to assess continuously his progress in the light of goals set up. In another college, at registration each student receives from his adviser a list of courses to be taken and the hours and sections he is to attend. In the student's words, "It's just a programming device. Yes, we have an adviser but we consult him chiefly when we are in trouble."

Within the classrooms of teacher-preparing institutions differences are also found. In some, little or no provision is made for individual differences, as in a class where students are answering questions about the content found in a given section of the textbook owned by each student, or in another in which two members are reporting on a chapter assigned for reading by the entire class. In other situations individual needs and concerns are recognized as the teacher answers and develops points raised by student questions. Differences in group interests are met at times by relating class work to the immediate concerns of students, as illustrated by the group discussing a recent incident in the light of the position taken by the author of their textbook. In still other classes teachers are differentiating out-of-class assignments and using varied instructional materials, and different aspects of an area of study are undertaken by different students. An instance of the latter is a class group that is sharing findings on problems submitted by a former student, now engaged in his first year of teaching, with a view to sending suggestions and the help requested. These illustrations indicate that the ways currently used and the degree to which they provide for differences among individuals are varied.

Experiencing Effective Guidance Is Important for the Prospective Teacher

Fundamental problems of guidance have special significance for those responsible for the learning of persons who, in turn, are to carry the important responsibility of guiding children and youth. For the student desiring to become a teacher, guidance of his activities is a direct experience through which he learns good or bad guidance practices. This is direct experience which will affect his way of working with his pupils, which will confirm his beliefs or cause him to look upon educational principles as theoretical concepts which have little practical usefulness.

What Shall Be the Basis of Curriculum Organization?

Guidance of experiences may be facilitated or hindered by the organizational structure of the curriculum. Currently three major organizational patterns are found in colleges and universities concerned with the preparation of teachers. One is the organization of courses within departments such as history, English, music, psychology, elementary education. A second pattern relates to divisional fields such as the social sciences, the humanities, education. The third form is one which cuts across departmental and divisional lines to organize the curriculum around the situations, problems, and functions which are central in human living. Marriage and family life, building and maintaining sound human relations, personal and social health are illustrative of this pattern. Which of these patterns will best facilitate learning? In which will the learning be in situations most nearly like those in which it will be used later? Are there other forms of organization, as yet unexplored, which might prove to be better?

A Functional Organization Is Determined by Goals Sought, the Nature of the College Student, and the Principles Governing Learning

The very nature of the experiences selected for inclusion in the curriculum will determine in some degree the answer to questions of organization. But other problems must be considered. To what degree is it desirable to depart from the organized disciplines? Should the answer be different for general education and for advanced work in fields of specialization? Do the organized disciplines provide a high quality learning experience for some students? When? What are the advantages and limitations of interdisciplinary majors? Of interdisciplinary courses? Will work in these courses of necessity be less penetrating? When work is organized around personal and social problems what happens to the logical and sequential development of fields of knowledge? How necessary for sound learning is the logical relationship and increasing difficulty of subject matter? Should the sequence of curriculum experiences be determined by the changing situations and problems faced by the college student or by the internal organization of a field of study?

The Essentials of Effective Learning Determine the Length and Placement of Academic and Professional Work

An additional group of questions has special significance for the profession of teaching since so much of the work in general education, as well as the methodology of college teaching, makes a direct contribution to the future work of the prospective teacher. Should general education designed for the individual and citizen, yet contributing basic content for the prospective teacher, be placed at the beginning of the college curriculum as a foundation for professional education? Should it come toward the end of the curriculum as an integrating summary, or should it be a part of the work of each of the college years? The decision made depends upon answers given to sub-problems such as the following. Do students have and see a need for continuing general education after they enter upon programs of specialized study? How do they view the deferment of specialized and professional work until general education requirements are completed? How strong is the vocational objective of college freshmen? Does this objective differ for those attending a multi-purpose institution and those enrolling in a college whose central purpose is the preparation of teachers? Does the year in which a course or out-of-class activity is pursued affect significantly the gains which a student obtains from the experience? The last question applies equally to work in general education, specialization, and professional education and suggests another question. Should the work in professional areas be delayed until a foundation is developed in the subject fields which the teacher will use in his teaching, to a time when the student is more mature and when he will have more knowledge to bring to his work with children—or should work in both areas move forward together, with interrelations pointed out?

In addition to the problem of placement, an answer must be given to the basic question of what the length of the pre-service curriculum should be if the scholarship needed by today's teacher is developed to the point where he has a sound working base for his initial teaching activities and the essentials for continuing growth. The answer given rests upon reactions to the following related questions. How much more could be achieved in the present four-year programs if learning principles were fully implemented in designing the curriculum and carrying on instruction? If five or more years are needed, what should be the nature and placement of work in academic and professional areas in each of the years? Should a fifth-year internship be provided as a capstone of professional preparation? How should the last year of pre-service study be related to continuing in-service education of the teacher?

The placement and length of academic and professional work in the total curriculum design constitute another problem area to be considered in the light of what is most productive of the desired functional learning.

How Is Needed Change to Be Brought About?

The decisions to be made are many. Each situation is unique and presents its distinctive problems to the educators who work in it. However, any educational program represents a choice from among many alternatives. Each college must and does make a choice. On what is that choice based? Is tradition the criterion? The exigencies of the situation and the pressures of time? The limitations of available resources, human and material? The fear of change and the need of the human organism for security? Unless it can truthfully be said that the choice is based on reasoned judgment following the careful study of the issues, there can be little to justify the action taken.

How to bring about constructive and meaningful change in the content and organization of curricula is itself a fundamental problem. Like any other productive experience, curriculum change presupposes a change in the behavior of people. It is a continuing growth process resulting from meaningful experiences for staff members and is governed by the same learning principles as those operating for students. What do these principles imply for developing a willingness to experiment with new ideas and to adapt present ideas to new conditions? How can college teachers as individuals find answers to the problems which most directly affect their work? Many answers will be found in the on-the-job experimentation of these teachers as they work with students in and out of class. When should larger groups, possibly an entire faculty, undertake curriculum revision? What part should students have in curriculum change? What is the role of the administration in encouraging and facilitating change? What does the improvement of the program of teacher education mean for in-service education of college teachers, the selection of new staff members, staff participation in policy making, staff load, recognition of contributions made through productive teaching as well as through research and writing? How meet the difficulties created by regulations, conventional time allotments, certification requirements, and vested interests?

The way in which many individuals and college staff groups are approaching curriculum change is most stimulating and suggestive. Answers are being sought slowly and carefully and as Morse phrases it "more fundamentally . . . with emphasis upon the student, upon the way he learns and can be taught, upon values which may be more meaningful to him, and upon teaching techniques which contribute better to the objectives we are seeking." [9]

In Summary

The task of teacher education is both complex and important; the problems that must be dealt with are many. This chapter has attempted to state some of the more basic of these problems; the chapters which follow analyze them in greater detail and present proposals for their study and solution. The larger issues and problems may be summarized as follows:

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[9] Morse, H. T. (ed.), *General Education in Transition.* Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1951, p. 172.

A: The Goals to Be Realized

1. Is the *primary* goal of teacher education intellectual development—the scholarly mastery of fields of knowledge and ability to deal verbally with ideas?
2. Is it necessary that the goals include both intellectual development and the building of social and emotional adjustments basic to using knowledge to interpret and deal with personal, social, and professional situations?

B: Concept of the College Curriculum

1. Will the desired goals be achieved and teachers adequately prepared when the curriculum is conceived as a program of courses?
2. Should the curriculum for teacher education include courses and all other experiences of students for which the college bears responsibility?

C: Nature and Content of Curriculum Experiences

1. Will a curriculum whose content is primarily subject matter selected in terms of logical relationships and sequential development of a field provide meaningful experiences for prospective teachers?
2. For experiences to be meaningful to students should the content of the curriculum deal with the significant personal, social, and professional problems and situations faced by individuals and groups in our society—with subject matter selected from organized bodies of knowledge as needed in the study of these problems?
3. When does the logical organization of a field provide meaningful experience for a student?
4. Can vicarious experience alone give adequate meaning to ideas?
5. Are direct experiences equally needed in general and professional education?
6. Should general education be the same for all teachers? Should it be the same for teachers and for those having other educational goals?
7. To what extent do the professional responsibilities of teachers working in elementary and secondary schools indicate similar or differentiated work in professional education? In areas of specialization?
8. Should the content of courses in general education and in fields of specialization include consideration of the professional use of the content? Are separate methods courses needed?

D: Guidance of Learning Experiences

1. How can student purpose (the drive toward a goal) be related to what is to be learned?
2. How can experiences which center in the immediate concerns and interests (purposes) of college youth be guided so as to provide meaningfully for the depth of study basic to the scholarship required of the citizen-teacher?

3. What must be the nature of the guidance of experiences if work on contemporary problems and immediate situations is to provide adequately for the necessary understanding of trends and historical backgrounds?
4. What does adequate recognition of individual differences mean for differentiation of experiences? For co-operative work on an experience of common concern? For differentiation in the length of the period of student teaching? For variation in the length of the total educational program for different students? For the place and nature of electives?
5. What is the student's role in selecting, planning, carrying out, and evaluating his college experiences?
6. How can students be helped to grow in appraising their success in the achievement of goals? What must be the nature of evaluation which adequately judges the competencies required of today's citizen-teacher?

E: Organization of Curriculum Experiences

1. Will an organization by subjects, broad fields, natural groupings of closely related life problems and situations, or some other plan of organization best facilitate the desired learning?
2. What proportion of the total curriculum should be allocated to each of the three major areas—general education, specialization, professional education? To achieve the desired learning should such divisions be maintained?
3. Can the citizen-teacher best be prepared when work in general education precedes professional study or when both academic and professional areas are a part of each college year? At what points in the curriculum will work in fields of specialization be most productive?
4. What place do elective courses have in the teacher-education curriculum? Should the curriculum be essentially prescribed, with courses and other activities selected in terms of the needs of the individual student?
5. Can the needed initial competence and controls for continuing self-education be developed in a four-year program?
6. Should a fifth-year internship be provided as a meaningful way to relate pre-service study to continuing in-service education?

F: Bringing About Curriculum Change

1. What part should students have in bringing about curriculum change? What special educational values can this experience have for the prospective teacher?
2. What does improvement of the college curriculum mean for in-service teacher education at the college level—providing for and fostering experimentation by individuals and groups?
3. What is the role of administration in encouraging and facilitating change —selection of new staff members, staff participation in policy making, staff load, recognition of contributions made through productive teaching as well as through research and writing?
4. How can the difficulties created by regulations, conventional time allotments, certification requirements, and vested interests be met?

The chapters which follow examine the foregoing problems in the light of the goals and values of our society, on the one hand, and on the other, the available evidence regarding the nature of the learner and the way in which learning takes place. It is hoped that this analysis and the resulting guides for curriculum and teaching, for personnel work and administration, may be suggestive to those who are preparing young teachers to meet the challenge and to enjoy the satisfactions of teaching. As individual staff members and as college faculties test the suggestions in action it is hoped that further study, experimentation, and research will be undertaken and new insights gained.

4

THE ACADEMIC FIELDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION *

The academic fields as the branches of knowledge which pertain to the liberal studies—literature, science, the arts, mathematics, philosophy, history and other social sciences—as distinguished from technical or professional fields, make a major contribution to two of the three aspects of the curriculum for the prospective teacher. First, they are basic to the general education which helps the student to become an informed and interesting person and a capable and active citizen. Second, they are central in the experiences which provide competence in the fields of specialization which the student will use in teaching children and youth. Some of the academic fields also make a definite contribution to professional education. This contribution is discussed in Chapter V.

The Academic Fields Are Vital to the Goals of Teacher Education

Society and the teaching profession owe a very real debt to scholars in academic fields for the contribution they have made and continue to make in their search for truth. Even though not all of their material is used in teacher education in the form in which they have organized it, the contribution made is none the less vital for the citizen-teacher.

The Teacher as an Individual and Citizen Needs Understanding of the Academic Fields

The teacher as an individual and citizen is confronted with the same needs and problems as other members of society. These include, for example, preparing for good family living, selecting local and national leaders, working out a personal philosophy of life, making decisions regarding medical care, recognizing and interpreting propaganda, interacting with minority groups, using leisure in a satisfying manner, providing for enriched personal living. These and a host of other situations are met by all individuals as they endeavor to live wisely, usefully, and happily. Morse refers to these common continuing concerns as the basic wants of men:

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* This chapter was prepared by Professor Florence B. Stratemeyer, Teachers College, Columbia University.

> We all want, first of all . . . personalities, internal selves which we can like and admire with humility, with understanding, and with humored tolerance, and without arrogance or illusion. We want intimates, family and close friends, to support and comfort us without our becoming parasites upon them or they upon us, and we want to know how to manage and constantly improve our interpersonal relationships to these ends. We want to increase continually our economic competence by pouring out our energies into jobs that we like and can do with a sense of personal satisfaction and awareness of the social usefulness of our work, whether we labor in the isolation of the laboratory and studio or toil among others as members of little teams or vast organizations for production, distribution, or service. And finally we want healthy communities in which we may live unfouled and unfrustrated by the diseased rigidities of social caste and class and cancerous racism, by the ravages of economic predators with their selfish destruction of our natural and human resources, and by the power-grabbing politicians of totalitarianism, fascist or communist. Without such healthy communities, we know, from the evidence in our times of wars, hot and cold and phony, and from inflations, recessions, and depressions, that we cannot maintain healthy personalities, sound families, rich friendships, or good jobs.[1]

The problems encountered in achieving these "wants" are those about which the college student must exercise judgment now and later. To deal with them soundly calls for acquaintance with the best that is known or hypothesized about mankind and the world, and for understanding of the heritage of thought on these fundamental problems of living. Accurate knowledge of relevant facts and values, and skills of reflective thinking, creativity, and analysis are needed.

The Field of Education Also Contributes to the Needs of the Student as Individual and Citizen

Education, as a professional field, also contributes to the general education needed by all individuals. For example, the student who, through courses in human growth and development, studies human nature and learns about people as individuals and as members of groups should also be helped to become a better homemaker, to expand his understanding of the social scene, to increase his insight into his own behavior, and to improve his relationships with his fellows. Study of the crucial role of education in civilization, of the qualities of a good educational program, of educational costs, of ways in which home and school can work together in the best interest of the child—all are significant for the parent and taxpayer regardless of his particular vocation.

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[1] Morse, H. T. (ed.), *General Education in Transition*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951, pp. 38–39.

Academic fields and the field of professional education have a reciprocal relation and each is needed in helping the student cope with life problems.

The Academic Fields Provide the Teacher Essential Instructional Content

If everyone must use materials from the basic fields of knowledge to deal with the realities of our age, it follows that the teacher must draw upon the liberal studies in helping children and youth develop the understandings and skills needed in dealing with these realities. The academic fields make a twofold contribution to the work of the teacher. First, they provide much of the content with which children and youth will deal as the teacher guides their general education. The academic fields supply the essential content of experiences in the elementary school as children meet their problems of writing for the school paper, using leisure time to read, sharing their ideas graphically, understanding the world in which they live, and many others. But general education goes forward through high school and into college. As he works with high-school youth, the teacher draws upon the basic knowledge which has provided the essential content of his own general education in college. It is in college, through the more intensive study of the fundamental ideas and situations with which all persons must deal, through the more mature and critical approach to problems, through the sharpening of perspectives and growth in awareness of the relation of fields of knowledge one to the other, that the prospective teacher builds the knowledge and understanding needed in guiding the general education of children and youth.

Such knowledge and understanding are needed both as background for the teacher and for use directly with pupils. The teacher needs background in the academic fields to enable him to clarify and explain concepts in ways sufficiently simple to be understood by the child. For example, a substantial knowledge of science is needed to answer the question of the four-year-old, "Why doesn't the moon fall down," or the concern of the slightly older child who seeks understanding of human birth. The teacher needs knowledge above and beyond that which he will use directly with the learner.

Second, the prospective teacher, through concentration or specialization in academic fields, gains that depth of understanding and insight into one or more areas of knowledge which is basic to helping the child with special interests or abilities to work more intensively on a problem. The teacher's understanding and skills from the fields of specialization are used directly as pupils pursue their special interests in general education, in an elected area of study, or in selected vocational choices. This deeper knowledge is especially needed in working with high-school youth. However, the prospective elementary-school teacher, in addition to study in each major field of knowledge, should have some area of concentration so that he may serve as a resource to his fellow teachers and thereby help to meet the needs of children having special interests and abilities.

There can be little question that the academic fields are basic to achieving professional as well as individual and social goals.

Teaching of the Academic Fields Contributes to a Concept and Understanding of Teaching

The individual learns what he experiences. He attends and responds to the things which relate to his purposes. This principle of learning indicates the important role played by the college teacher of the academic fields in building attitudes toward teaching and concepts of good teaching and the "good teacher." The student in classes concerned with the liberal studies or academic fields is *experiencing teaching*. "Being taught" is an experience which builds a concept of subject matter either as an end in itself or as a resource to be used in achieving other ends; it builds a concept of uniformity and expectancy of common response from all students or of differentiation in terms of their varying backgrounds, needs, and interests. It is an experience which suggests that the goal of education is the memorization of subject matter or the ability to use content in interpreting situations and solving problems. It pictures the teacher's role as primarily that of telling, of listening to the reciting of materials from a text, or of working with students on problems and providing guidance based on his wider experience. It points to the teacher as judge and evaluator of the student's growth or as a guide to students as they grow in ability to evaluate their own progress.

The college teacher working in academic fields, by virtue of the fact that he is a member of the teaching profession, cannot escape the influence of his example on the prospective teachers in his classes. Will that contribution be a service or a disservice to the prospective teacher? Every college administrator answers this question when he decides whether to appoint graduate assistants as teachers of general education courses without knowing their teaching competence. It is a question which, if answered constructively, would not favor viewing general education as a proving ground from which younger, less experienced staff members "graduate" to the teaching of specialized courses and to research. It is a question which every teacher of prospective teachers must face squarely and answer for himself. If the answer is to be positive, what must be the nature of the experiences provided in academic fields?

Nature of Experiences Needed in General Education

The degree to which the contributions of the academic fields are realized will depend upon the learning experiences in general education and in fields of specialization. Attention first will be given to what this means for work in general education.

Much Learning Has Been Abstract Rather Than Functional

Over a long period of time college teachers have worked assiduously to help students understand the ideas of the Western tradition, through courses in science, social science, mathematics, languages, the humanities. The results of such efforts sometimes are very disappointing. The student with a high scholastic standing in history and other of the social studies may evidence little interest in reading a good daily newspaper and may be confused and uncertain in discussions of such significant events as presidential elections, Point Four, housing programs, lend-lease, actions of labor unions. The student of mathematics who is able to manipulate formulas and work with abstract mathematical concepts may be at a loss when confronted with the practical problems of computing an income tax, making decisions regarding saving and investing, determining the amount of materials needed for painting or papering a room. Why?

Some thirty years ago, and before some of the present findings were available in the fields of biology and psychology, James Harvey Robinson was searching for answers.

> . . . How is human knowledge to be so ordered and presented in school and college as to produce permanent effects and an attitude of mind appropriate to our time and its perplexities? . . . Both the textbooks and manuals used in formal teaching and the various popular presentations of scientific facts written for adults tend, almost without exception, to classify knowledge under generally accepted headings. They have a specious logic and orderliness which appeals to the academic mind. They, therefore, suit the teachers fairly well, but unhappily do not inspire the learners.
>
> When one has "gone through" a text book and safely "passed" it, he rarely has any further use for it. This is not because he has really absorbed it and so need not refer to it again. On the contrary, it is associated with a process alien to his deeper and more permanent interests. And it is usually found by those who embark in adult education that text books make almost no appeal to grown-ups, who are free to express their distaste for them.[2]

Instruction in academic fields today, even as pointed out by Robinson, frequently is based on the intrinsic logic of the subject as set forth in a textbook or by the instructor. The student may have had few experiences to help him to sense and appreciate this internal logic. What meaning can it have for him? The fact that the logic is within the subject and outside the student is quite understandable when it is recalled how the logic was originally arrived at by the scholar who developed it. Most bodies of knowledge have emerged as individuals have studied their experiences and those of others and have generalized from them. Those persons who originally developed the logical forms of an academic field did so after reflection on a wide range of experiences and after relating a number of events and happenings which occurred in their own lives. The logic emerged as a result of thinking about a number of vital and meaningful experiences. It would be waste, indeed, if individuals today could not use that logic and experience and build upon them. Learning and teaching would contribute little to progress if it were necessary for each individual to retrace the steps of the original scholars before he could arrive at the logic of a subject. How then can their work be used in ways that will have real value for the college student?

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[2] Robinson, J. H., *The Humanizing of Knowledge.* New York: George H. Doran Company, 1926, p. 67.

There Is Need to Reorder the Selection and Treatment of Knowledge if It Is to Contribute to Current Thought and Conduct

Approaching the problem negatively, there is need to find ways to help students avoid a substantial investment of time and energy which results only in the amassing of information which is forgotten as soon as examinations are over, or which is carried as "excess baggage" of little or no real use in the affairs of life. Approached positively, there is need to find ways to help students make the substantial contributions to everyday living which are possible when the individual has a functional use of knowledge.

The general education movement, more than any other recent single development, has modified thinking and changed practices in the academic fields. While this movement began as a "protest against the excessive fragmentation and specialism that have undermined liberal education in the past half-century,"[3] it was a protest based upon recognition of new goals and new demands in modern living. Although this is an age of specialization, each individual must have a background of general knowledge sufficient to make some judgments concerning the proficiency of those engaged in other areas of special endeavor and to understand how his specialty fits into the total pattern. The Harvard Report states the problem in these terms:

> In this epoch in which almost all of us must be experts in some field in order to make a living, general education therefore assumes a peculiar importance. Since no one can become an expert in all fields, everyone is compelled to trust the judgment of other people pretty thoroughly in most areas of activity. I must trust the advice of my doctor, my plumber, my lawyer, my radio repairman, and so on. Therefore I am in peculiar need of a kind of sagacity by which to distinguish the expert from the quack, and the better from the worse expert. From this point of view, the aim of general education may be defined as that of providing the broad critical sense by which to recognize competence in any field . . . and the educated man should be one who can tell sound from shoddy work in a field outside his own. General education is especially required in a democracy where the public elects its leaders and officials; the ordinary citizen must be discerning enough so that he will not be deceived by appearances and will elect the candidate who is wise in his field.[4]

Concerned initially with a re-examination of the nature and purposes of liberal education, the general education movement has come to include reconsideration of the nature of the learning process. Through their study and experimentation, leaders have been making a fundamental contribution to the general education aspect of the teacher-education program. In fact, some of the most challenging suggestions for teacher education have come from persons working in academic disciplines.

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[3] National Society for the Study of Education, *General Education*, Fifty-first Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952, p. 250.

[4] Report of the Harvard Committee, *General Education in a Free Society*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945, p. 54.

Various Ways of Selecting and Organizing General Education Experiences Are Being Tested

The problem of selecting materials to achieve the generally accepted goals of general education[5] has led to different organizational patterns. The survey course was one of the early proposals. The most common type of survey was chiefly a condensation of the elementary courses in the various areas composing a field, usually presented seriatim by a group of specialists. In the natural sciences, for example, an overview of chemistry might be followed by one in physics, another in geology, and so on. The student received help in seeing the component parts of a field of knowledge otherwise impossible, since he would not have time to take introductory courses in each of the areas. However, this movement did little to help the student understand the place of such subject matter in intelligent living, or to see the interrelationships among areas. Further, there was the tendency to crowd too much content into a limited time with the result that the work was overgeneralized. Students often found such experiences to be difficult and to have little meaning.

A second major movement, and one which seems to characterize current practice in many colleges, is the use of a social problems or issues approach. In the field of the social sciences, for example, a series of problems which have been persistent in society may serve as the basis for selection and organization of content. One such problem might be labor and the struggle for industrial democracy. This question would be considered in its historical, political, economic, and social phases. Most commonly, in this approach the work centers in the areas of the humanities, the social sciences, the physical sciences, and communication. The following descriptions are illustrative of work now being carried on in a teachers college, a university, and a college of liberal arts.

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[5] American Council on Education, *A Design for General Education.* Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1944, pp. 14–15.

President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for Democracy.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1948, pp. 50–57.

Bio-Social Development of the Individual

Eighteen credit hours. Required of all freshmen except by special permission. Continuous throughout the year. Credit earned in this core area will, if transferred to another college, be listed on the transcript as biology 9 hours, psychology 3 hours, sociology 6 hours.

This course utilizes materials from the fields of human biology, health, psychology, and the social studies in giving the basic facts and in developing sensitivity and meanings essential to the solution of the problems of the individual under current social conditions. Topics considered are human development; biological and social factors that may facilitate, inhibit, or distort development, such as diet, physiological functioning, family relations, social and economic status; biological, psychological, and social needs, the conflicts that rise in the satisfaction of these needs, and ways of resolving conflicts; the particular needs of adolescents in current Western society and the various attempts at meeting these needs under changing economic and social conditions; democracy in contrast to other forms of human relationships; the impact of rapid change on the family, church, and other social institutions; the changing birth rate and its biological and social implications, the origin and consequences of national, race, and religious prejudices; individual differences resulting from hereditary and environmental influences.

The biological aspects of the course are clarified through work in the science laboratory; the social aspects, through observation of and participation in community and institutional life, including contacts with children, youth, and adults under many varying conditions.[6]

Humanities in the Modern World

Our basic assumption in the *Humanities in the Modern World* is that humanities may be defined as the study of man as he can be discovered through literature, philosophy and criticism. In some of our sections we do use music and art as illustrative material but, by and large, we rely upon the written word to give us access to man and his meaning. This definition of humanities allows us great freedom of action while it also provides a secure framework for our efforts.

We feel that man can best be studied by taking a limited number of general problems that have confronted him in the last 200 odd years, and seeing what sorts of solutions he has devised. This method has certain advantages for it allows us, first of all, to isolate a problem and then to test it against various kinds of literary materials. We assume, for example, that in the development of the society of Western Europe certain ideas emerge out of a complex political, social, religious, and intellectual process. These problems become explicit in the writings of philosophers and critics. There we find statements of the problem and of its meaning and often suggestions for its solution. After studying the critic and the philosopher we attempt to test the validity of his hypothesis by mirroring it in a work of creative literature. Our method should become clear through a short discussion of the materials actually studied in the course. . . .

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[6] State Teachers College, Troy, Alabama. Catalog, 1952–53, p. 40. (See also Problem Outline—*Bio-social Contributions to Personal Development*, 1953.)

. . . The second problem of the second quarter is built around the general theme of individual liberty. We start with Mill's *Essay on Liberty* as a basic document expounding the liberal position, and test it against a series of three plays by Henrik Ibsen and, finally, the great Russian novel *The Brothers Karamazov* by Dostoyevski. In this last novel there is a good deal more, of course, than merely the question of liberty. Dostoyevski is interested and our students therefore have to become interested in the problem of man's meaning and his destiny in the modern world. Since he also is concerned with the problem of human psychology and its development, our students must also attempt to follow the great Russian's understanding of man. In many ways this book is the high point in the course. Any number of the students have indicated that in the *Brothers "K"* they have found new understandings of man and of themselves. . . .

. . . Merely to list the books that we use in this course gives very little understanding of its impact upon the students. It is the method and the aims that are most important. Our primary objective is to force the student to see what are the underlying assumptions, the basic postulates of each author. We do not wish to convert the student to any one of these points of view. We do not teach these books as being true or false. We rather attempt to make our students see what are the beliefs about man and the world which lead the authors to present the problem, or the criticism, or the ideals that they have developed in their writings. This is the most important service that *Humanities in the Modern World* gives to the students. As one of my own students said to me, "This course had an important impact on all of my University work because it has taught me to read critically." There is much loose talk in the University about teaching students to be critical; we believe that only by forcing them to analyze the assumptions and postulates with which they are confronted can it be satisfactorily done. . . .[7]

The Great Issues Course

The first objective is to provide for all Dartmouth graduates a better transition from their last year of liberal arts education in conventional classroom forms and texts to the forms and reading sources of a continuing adult education; in other words, to provide an experience in applying and carrying on one's general education. . . .

The second objective of the course is to give all seniors, regardless of their major and elective studies, a common intellectual experience so as to stimulate out-of-class discussions which are an important part of self-education and of developing maturity. . . .

. . . to the third (objective): to develop among all Dartmouth seniors a sharp awareness of the values involved in great issues which confront men today, thereby promoting a heightened sense of public purpose and individual public-mindedness. . . .

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[7] Mimeographed report sent to the writer by the Chairman of the Department of General Studies, University of Minnesota.

The means provided by the Great Issues Steering Committee for the achievement of the objective(s) have been principally (1) the experience of seeing in action and hearing many outstanding men of affairs, (2) the daily reading of either *The New York Times* or *New York Herald Tribune* as a textbook, (3) a project required of every student calling for a written paper to include a discriminating day-by-day analysis of the treatment by three newspapers, regarded as stereotypes of left, right, and center in attitude, of some topic of sufficient current interest to have received prominent mention over a period of several days. In addition, the project calls for a comparison with the treatment of the same topic either in news-magazines or by radio or television newscasters. (4) A project, introduced for the first time with the 1951 class, requiring each student to keep a journal as a record of the lectures, of news items which have impressed him as relevant to the subject matter of the course, of assigned readings, and of exhibits in the Public Affairs Laboratory; these entries to be concerned not so much with the subject matter but rather to constitute a record of the writer's reactions and to serve as a device for self-integration. . . .

(A great issue is) defined as one which has historical depth, current timeliness, and projection into the future. . . . (Among the great issues discussed recently were):

News vs. History
Limitations of Mass Media
The Public and Informed Opinion
Enterprise: How Free, How Corporate, How International
Is There Too Much Bigness in American Life?
Justice and the Power of Majorities
To What Extent Should Society's Needs Be Met by Government?
National Security and Individual Freedom: Can We Have Both?
Pressure Groups
The Role of Labor
Science, Population, and the Future
Scientific Progress and Security
The Hope for United Nations Security
Forces at Work in the Far East
The Ideology of International Communism
The Theater: Too Old to Be Virtuous?
An Architect Looks at Civilization
A Secular View of the Moral Life
Modern Man's Search for Himself
The Natural and Supernatural Bounds of Science[8]

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[8] *The First Five Years, an Appraisal of "Great Issues."* Reprint from Dartmouth Alumni Magazine, Issue of February, 1953. Also 1953–54 Lecture Schedule.
Stickler, Hugh, "Senior Courses in General Education," *Journal of Higher Education*, 25:139–146, March, 1954.

Within the problems or issues approach, as will be seen from the foregoing illustrations, there are fundamental differences. There are programs in which the focus is on great documents that stimulate thinking on fundamental questions. Some programs are based on the larger, underlying problems, while in others these problems are dealt with through the more immediate concerns of man. Some are centered on the questions which are essentially value-dilemmas in society. In some programs all fields and divisions of knowledge are drawn upon for facts and principles pertinent to the problem. In others issues are selected to which a broad field, such as the humanities or the social sciences, makes a major contribution. Some, such as the *Bio-Social Development of the Individual,* are offered for students in the first college years while others, such as *Humanities in the Modern World,* may be taken in appropriate sections by either lower or upper division students. Courses like *Great Issues* are designed specifically for seniors.

A third type of general education course is built around the needs of the student. Stephens College, for example, has developed its curriculum upon a survey of the activities and problems of women. Sarah Lawrence, on the other hand, interprets student needs to mean "from her own interests as a starting point." [9] Beginning with a personal concern or interest, through an advisory program the student is helped to discover related problems and to develop wider horizons that reveal new needs and create new interests. For example, work might begin with present tastes and interests in the area of the arts and humanities. Gradually introduced to a variety of relevant experiences, the student realizes how her concern can be met more completely and satisfyingly through resources previously unknown to her.

Each of the experimental programs merits careful study by those concerned with developing a functional program of general education. Each takes account of the value of the various academic fields. Each recognizes that no mere piecing together of separate disciplines will provide a meaningful and integrated experience.

Planning a General Education Which Relates Student Purposes and Problems to Continuing Life Situations

As the experimental programs suggest, there are varied ways of helping students become creative individuals and thoughtful, active citizens. Doubtless some contribute more than do others to achieving this goal. How to do this important job most effectively and efficiently in the time available is the task faced by those responsible for the preparation of teachers. There is general agreement that all students, and especially the prospective teacher, need to become literate in the major fields of knowledge. Such literacy is basic to the broad perspective and critical sense required of today's citizen. It is recognized as unrealistic to assume that this can be gained by taking substantial courses in each area of knowledge—biology, chemistry, physics, astronomy, geology, zoology, to name but a few areas in a single field. With the increase in specialized knowledge has come a progressive subdivision of departments, subjects, and courses and a corresponding tendency to focus less on the *total* development of the individual. This has frequently resulted in an imbalance in the student's education brought about by the pursuit of certain areas of special interest and the neglect of others of basic importance to the liberally educated person. It is generally accepted that elements must be selected from the various fields and brought into useful relationship. What shall be the bases for the selection and organization of these elements?

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[9] Quoted in Johnson, R. I., *Explorations in General Education: The Experiences of Stephens College.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1947, p. 142.

The answer to this central question lies both in the nature of society and the goals to be achieved, and in the nature of the learner and the learning process. On the one hand there must be concern for the fundamental needs, conditions, and problems to be dealt with if the values for which our society is striving are to be realized. On the other hand there must be recognition of that which has meaning for the learner now. The learner and the society of which he is a part must be brought into relationship. The needed synthesis is achieved when the situations of everyday living which students are facing are seen as aspects of continuing life situations with which all members of society must be able to deal.[10] Everybody is concerned in some measure with such fundamentals as maintaining physical and mental health, achieving effective group living, using the method of intelligence in solving problems, using natural and technological resources wisely and for maximum social good, using varied media to communicate thought and feeling, developing a sustaining philosophy or set of values. These and other areas of concern, both to the individual and to society, tend to continue although the immediate situations through which they are met vary with circumstances and with the background and maturity of the individual. For example, using varied media to communicate thought and feeling has taken on new dimensions with the development of such mass media as radio and television. For some students the immediate situation involving this continuing life situation may be their responsibility for participation in a college-sponsored broadcast or telecast. For another group it may be concern, as a result of parents' questions at a PTA meeting, for the quality of television programs prepared for children. For other students the continuing life situation of communicating thought and feeling may be the need to improve skills of oral communication in order to be better understood by their peers and the adults with whom they work. The writers of this volume suggest that the content and experiences selected for inclusion in general education should be those which the student needs to deal intelligently with his purposes and problems as they relate to continuing life situations.

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[10] Adapted from Stratemeyer, F. B., Forkner, H. L., and McKim, M. G., *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947, p. 73.

Student purposes and problems are the starting point.—To become acquainted with the liberal studies does not, in and of itself, liberate the mind. To have this contact contribute to making the mind "free from" ignorance and superstition and "free to" search for truth, experience must relate to the student's purposes and actively involve him in struggling with the ideas to be understood and acted upon. As noted in the preceding chapter, education is not merely giving something to students. Rather, it must direct their natural and normal efforts to meet successfully the situations they face. How to realize maximum satisfactions on a limited budget, whether the press is free and responsible, whether peace with Russia is possible, how to relate religious beliefs and certain findings of science—these are some of the problems and situations of our times which stimulate as well as confuse college youth. They are illustrative of immediate situations which have reality and meaning for students and for which they desire solutions. Other problems arise at different times and for different students.

Dealing with problems which concern college youth is not to be interpreted to mean, however, that the curriculum includes only "expressed" needs and interests. On the contrary, it also grows out of the teacher's best insights into the situations confronting the student. For example, the person who over a long period of time has been handicapped through lack of reading skill may not recognize that this can be corrected through special work in a reading clinic. The teacher must constantly study the college students with whom he works in order to identify the problems which they are actually trying to solve, even though they are inarticulate about them. Nor is the curriculum to be conceived as including only situations which grow out of the student's direct experience. The radio, newspaper, and growing body of other printed materials have opened a world far wider than that which firsthand contact allows. There is need, however, to guard against instructor-imposed experiences: those that have meaning for the college teacher but for which the student at this stage in his development has little readiness. At all times the situation must have meaning for the student, whether he is directly or vicariously involved.

Further, it must be kept in mind that the individual's purposes and concerns grow out of his background of experience. It becomes the instructor's responsibility, and a very important one, to direct student efforts into new areas or to new aspects of familiar experiences. In fact, it is the very scholarship of the college teacher (and, in turn, of the teacher of children as he works with his pupils) that enables him to open up new vistas and interests for students. With his colleagues, he has responsibility for helping the student deal with the range of problems and situations which are a part of the reality of today's world. But in so doing, two factors differentiate this approach to the selection of content and experiences from that of the *a priori* selection and organization of knowledge. First, the materials presented to open new avenues and develop new purposes are selected with reference to the backgrounds and interests of the particular students. Second, as these materials are considered with the students, the college instructor seeks to identify the concerns and purposes of the students as bases for the selection and organization of next steps in the work. This requires a college teacher as sensitive to students as to the content of instruction. One without the other leaves the teaching-learning experience incomplete. As stressed in Chapter III, the teacher may deal quite adequately with the subject matter, but if he pays little attention to the learners there may be little permanent learning of the content. On the other hand, he may give much attention to the students, but if their concerns and purposes do not take into account their developing needs and the demands which society is and will be making on them, learning of the kind needed will be limited.

One other point should be clarified. This approach through student purposes and needs does not imply that there is no advance planning of the work. Rather, for its successful implementation, it is required that the college teacher and others responsible for the curriculum take three major steps prior to direct work with students: (1) study of the characteristics and concerns of the college student and the special backgrounds of the particular college group; (2) identification of the fundamental and continuing life situations with which the students should be helped to deal; and (3) selection of the essential content—understandings and skills—needed to cope with those situations. As a guide to developing insight into ways in which students of various maturity levels and backgrounds of experience tend to face these continuing problems, college faculties have found it helpful to make a rather systematic analysis of the nature of the situations with which the teacher must deal as individual, citizen, and member of the teaching profession.

Student purposes must be related to continuing life situations.— The reason for relating students' immediate purposes and needs to continuing life situations is twofold. First, the range and variety of the recurring situations, which the citizen-teacher inevitably must encounter, provide a balanced and rounded program and serve as a guide for extending the immediate interests and concerns of students. Starting with the situations which are "immediate" or "focal" for the individual or group, the college teacher helps them to see further implications. One of the fundamental aspects of the art of teaching lies in helping students to see continuing life situations in their everyday concerns. For example, the continuing problem of the relation between personal and social values—maintaining maximum individual freedom in an orderly society—can take on very real meaning and become an area of significant study as students grapple with such immediate concerns as the right of communists to teach in the public schools or the action of the college administration limiting the activities of the staff of the college paper. Looking at the philosophical issues involved, at essential values and their sources, and at historical perspectives, the student grows in understandings which he will apply to this recurring conflict as he finds it in contemporary situations.

The second reason relates to the nature of the learning process. If the individual learns what he experiences, and if learning is more effective when the experience is similar to situations in which it later will be used, then these situations of life which continuously recur would seem to best provide similar combinations of circumstances. In a world of change, they are the problems which college students face and continue to face through adulthood, and which take on new meaning as the individual matures. They are the situations in which the students will later use what they learn, as they identify these recurring problems in the contemporary and immediate situations of daily living. As the college student is helped to deal with continuing life situations—the ecological approach to conservation policies and practices, understanding the individual's role in the universe, recognizing and expressing beauty, the struggle for industrial democracy, interrelations among nations—he works on the same situations with which he will continue to deal as an adult concerned with developing a better life for himself and for others.

The approach is one in which the purpose of the stimulating and thought-provoking *Great Issues* course given at Dartmouth in the senior year "to provide an experience in applying and carrying on one's general education" [11]—is central to the entire program of general education. The "forms and reading sources . . . of a continuing adult education" [12] are believed to be an important part of effective learning in all aspects of general education.

Immediate and continuing life situations determine the content of general education.—The general education program planned with reference to student purposes and the continuing life situations which are a part of them is neither absolute nor fortuitous. When continuing life problems become the basis on which content from the academic fields is chosen, all students are guaranteed contact with those basic life situations and with the values, understandings, and skills required to deal with them effectively. The continuing life situations are constant for all students over the years. However, as noted previously, the particular way in which a continuing problem is faced and the aspects involved vary from time to time and for different student groups. Starting with the students' concerns as they relate to a continuing life situation provides the flexibility needed in effective learning. Dealing with the ramifications and larger implications of the problem, with its historical perspectives and related aspects, assures the basic understandings and skills needed by all students if they are to be competent in dealing with the continuing problem.

When the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to deal critically and creatively with immediate and continuing life situations become the criterion for the elements to be included in general education, several other characteristics of the selection of content of academic fields become evident. For the student working in general education areas which are not related to his specialization, some of the material of the academic field will be omitted. For example, for the non-specialist the usual materials from the field of biology relating to the lower forms of animal life would be replaced by materials that the average person would find useful—the materials pertinent to the continuing problem of the ecology of healthful living—such as "facts concerning the structure and functioning of the human body, the parasities and bacteria which damage or destroy it, the facts of hygiene, and so on." [13] For the student for whom the work is basic to his specialization, added content and materials of biology may be considered through differentiated assignments and through specialized courses.

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[11] See excerpt from *Great Issues* course on pp. 93–94.

[12] *Ibid.*

When immediate and continuing life situations become the bases for the selection and organization of content and experiences in the academic fields, another factor appears. Not all fields are equally valuable for the general education of the citizen-teacher. While all academic fields make a contribution to general education, the materials of some relate more closely to the problems and situations faced by the specialist and accordingly their *major* contribution is as parts of fields of specialization.

How far teacher and students go in the study of a situation or problem also determines, to a degree, the content and nature of experiences included in the program. The fact that depth of study is contingent upon the readiness and ability of students often creates a problem in implementing the point of view under discussion. For example, a study of the 1954 ruling of the Supreme Court eliminating segregation of the races in schools and colleges may include consideration of the roots of this problem and its origins and causative factors, trends in dealing with minorities in this and other cultures, problems created by segregation and those arising from the de-segregation recommendation, methods of bringing about social change and of altering attitudes. For some groups anything more than a general consideration of attitude-building and the psychological factors effecting change in attitude would require study for which they are not yet equipped. Only those aspects of a problem are considered through which the students at the particular stage in their development "are able (with guidance) to learn to think, to enjoy, to perceive, and to know." [14] These set the limits for pursuing a particular problem or area of study at a given time.

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[13] Morse, H. T. (ed.), *General Education in Transition*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951, p. 19.

[14] Harold Taylor in *College and University Bulletin*, Association for Higher Education. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, November 1, 1954, p. 1. (Parenthetical statement the writer's.)

The problem of providing depth of educational experience is a very real responsibility of the college teacher. Just to deal with meaningful immediate situations and to see their relationship to recurring life problems does not assure depth. True, because the experience is related to the students' purposes there will be stronger motive to work on the material of study; but there is also need for teacher guidance so that essential qualities of problem solving and action are present.

Some persons question whether important content and experience will thus be omitted from the curriculum. Three things must be kept in mind. Since the focus is on continuing life situations the same basic problem or situation will be met again, and the needed depth of understanding and added competence will be developed and extended as the students meet the situation as it recurs from time to time in the same or a different setting. Second, whether the materials are important must be judged in terms of the purpose of general education. The goal is not to prepare a political scientist or a research chemist. General education seeks to help the student (1) to have a richer, more effective life as a person and citizen and (2) to build that broad background of understanding which gives perspective in seeing the relation of his areas of specialization to other fields. One group of leaders illustrate this purpose of general education:

> . . . The student would explore contemporary issues such as crime, housing, the family, unemployment, social security, international organization, and the concentration of governmental power. The student would examine each problem in the light of its current sociological manifestations, its historical origins, its economic factors, its psychological ramifications, and the proposed political remedies. After two or three weeks of reading in current periodical and basic scholarly sources, supplemented by class discussions, the student will in no sense be an expert on a problem nor will he be a competent economist or sociologist, but he may be aware of the complexities involved, the best source of information and the reasons for the conflicting solutions which the experts offer.[15]

Third, when students are not ready to learn materials that are important it is sometimes difficult for the teacher to keep uppermost in mind the significance of purpose and meaning in the learning process, and to be willing to delay teaching until meaningful avenues have been established. It is important for the college teacher to have confidence in the fact that situations will recur from time to time and that students who have meaningful experiences will seek to learn and will continue to add to their general education in after-college years.

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[15] Cooper, R. M., North Central Association, Committee on the Preparation of High School Teachers in Colleges of Liberal Arts, *Better Colleges—Better Teachers*. New York: Macmillan, 1944, p. 49.

There are also those who ask if a general education which is organized around continuing life situations will not repeat materials previously dealt with in elementary and secondary school. How will content differ from that already studied? It should be recalled that while fundamental problems and situations recur over and over in the life of each individual, new aspects and implications are seen and have meaning as the individual matures. Further, the immediate situations of which the continuing problems are a part differ over the years. The young child meets situations involving health largely by learning to wear rubbers and ski-pants; the older child and high-school youth develop an understanding of physiological and some psychological findings underlying the maintenance of optimum health as they struggle, for example, with problems of weight and diet. Added physiological and psychological principles become important for the college student attempting to adjust to leaving home or to understand local slum clearance plans and problems of juvenile delinquency. For the college student there is a more mature and critical approach, a more thoroughgoing analysis, a sharpening of perspectives through which he senses and relates various aspects of an issue, in the more intensive study of the ecology of healthful living.

An essential part of teaching at the college level is to utilize the student's previous learning and build upon it to deepen understanding and increase insight into its implications for meeting new situations. College students who in high school have dealt in a substantial manner with a particular body of knowledge in relation to a problem may in college work on new aspects of the situation through quite different materials. For example, a group of high-school seniors may have made an intensive study of American drama as an expression of social problems and values and as a factor influencing those values. These same students in college may deepen their understanding of the drama as an agency of social change through a study of dramatic writing found in other selected and widely varied cultures. Different content may be needed in the students' general education in the light of the particular strengths which they bring to college.

Content from several academic fields is integrated in dealing with a situation or problem.—Few life situations draw only upon the content of a single academic field. Students engaged in a study of the use of atomic energy for better health, for example, work with materials from the fields of physical science, economics, government, physiology, and health. The class responsible for planning the redecoration of a student lounge may inquire into such problems as the essentials of a satisfying physical environment; desirable leisure and recreational pursuits; testing merchandise for color fastness, shrinkage, and durability; consumer credit procedures; governmental efforts to protect consumers; insurance on furnishing. These call for knowledge of art, consumer education, chemistry, mathematics, health and recreation, psychology. Although discussion here is focused upon general education, even the specialist, unless he is dealing with very limited research, utilizes the data of more than one field. The historian, for example, must properly relate economic and geographical concepts to historical events. This need for integration is clearly identified by two educators writing some thirty years apart. The following statement is the more recent:

> Our task is to overcome the notion that man lives in a natural world *and* a social world *and* a spiritual or personal world, as if he were an element or denizen of three *different* worlds instead of a complex organism living in one complex world in a uniquely different way from other organisms and things.[16]

Three decades earlier Robinson wrote:

> There is a still more fundamental obstacle than those already mentioned which interferes with the proper interplay between the so-called natural and social sciences. Each of these grand divisions of human knowledge, which belong so intimately together, dealing as they do with man and his world, are [sic] artificially separated by old boundary lines, defended against invaders by jealous vested interests.
>
> At present vital knowledge is broken up into fragments; shuffled into large piles labelled history, philosophy, psychology, anthropology, ethics, politics, economics, astronomy, physics, chemistry, biology, geology, geography, botany. And each of these is divided into smaller piles—stellar physics, bio-chemistry, embryology, thermo-dynamics, optical mineralogy, prehistoric archaeology, epistemology, Latin epigraphy. . . .
>
> These departments of knowledge, great and small, correspond to a necessary division of labor, and have, of course, a great significance in research, but they form one of the most effective barriers to the cultivation of a really scientific frame of mind in the young and the public at large. In the enterprise of humanizing knowledge it is necessary first to recognize that specialization, so essential in research, is putting us on the wrong track in education.[17]

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[16] Morse, *op. cit.*, p. 75.

[17] Robinson, *op. cit.*, pp. 62–63.

Although the integrative agent is the individual student and the actual accomplishment of integration is really a behavioral affair which the student himself must master, there are ways in which he can be helped in this achievement. All that is known about the learning process indicates that the synthesis of learning from separate fields cannot be left to chance. When it is recognized that it is difficult for even the most able to see the application of knowledge learned in an altogether different organization to a new life situation, the need to synthesize knowledge becomes even more evident. The study of immediate and continuing life situations provides the natural basis for determining what materials from the several academic fields need to be brought into relationship. Exploration of such contemporary problems as crime, social security for the teacher, or international organizations, for example, includes an examination of each situation in the light of its sociological manifestations, its economic factors, its historical background, its psychological implications, and proposed political and social action. Thus materials are related in ways in which they are likely to be used in life situations.

For the prospective teacher the integration of content and experiences from several academic fields has additional values. The teacher-to-be faces the same problem of helping his pupils integrate their experiences. More and more elementary and secondary schools are realizing this need and are providing integrated offerings for children and youth; more and more these schools are helping pupils deal with problems of everyday living in ways that are vital for them. How better can the prospective teacher learn the meaning of integration than through his own experience?

An Illustration of Advanced Planning by a College Teacher

A more detailed picture of the way in which a course might develop which is based on student concerns and continuing life situations may be gained from the following block plan of two instructors co-operatively teaching a course in *International Relations.*[18] It is a plan projected in advance of working on the problem with students; many other details can only be worked out as the students enter into the planning process and, therefore, the proposed sequence of activities must also be tentative. The immediate concern of the students is with local news and radio reports which deal with the foreign policy of the United States in Asia. The statement of the problem which seemed to express *the concern of the students* was "Why doesn't India back up our foreign policy in Asia? Don't they know that democracy is better than communism?" The *continuing life situations* which the group will be helped to analyze include interrelations among nations, fostering peace, the problem of values and the individual's role in the universe, and application of the method of intelligence in problem-solving.

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[18] Prepared by Miss Gertrude Braun, State Teachers College, Danbury, Connecticut.

The work is guided by two staff members having special competence in history and sociology, respectively. Other members of the staff representing the fields of religion, social psychology, and the humanities will serve as resource personnel as needed.

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION	SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES *
A. Planning the study—factors to be considered	Joint planning by class members and permanent staff.
1. How do individuals and groups form concepts re democracy and communism?	The group may need to deal with the first question (*see* B below in left column) before proceeding to outline other factors to be included in the study. Or, they may project possible factors and test them through their consideration of the first question.
2. What values and beliefs of the Indian bear on his understanding of democracy and communism—India's cultural pattern?	
3. What have Indian contacts been with people and ideas that represent democracy? That represent communism?	
4. How do 1, 2, 3 above affect the concepts of the masses as contrasted with those of the leaders?	
5. What does the lack of support of American foreign policy by Indian leaders mean?	This group should be ready to consider questions 5 and 6, although not directly included in the original statement of the problem. They may not be identified by the group, and might better come from the staff as the work progresses.
6. What is India's potential power status?	
B. How individuals and groups form concepts about democracy and communism	Group discussion using illustrations from students' own learning

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* The statements in this column normally would be in the form of briefer notations. The more detailed statements are included here to share staff thinking with the reader.

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION	SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES
1. Face-to-face relations—involvement of persons with other people (in contrast to reading about)	
2. Reading about ideas and concepts	
3. Responding in terms of personal values and those inherent in his culture (relation to meaning) 4. Disregarding values and beliefs of other groups which are a threat to one's own values and security	Jim may have some special contribution to make based on the study of concept building in which he has been engaged in psychology.
C. Values and beliefs that affect the Indian's thinking about and understanding of democracy and communism—India's cultural pattern	
1. Major religious beliefs—Hinduism, Jainism, Buddhism	Lecture by resource person, followed by discussion
	Readings:
a. Philosophical derivations—Upanishads	Hocking, *Living Religions and World Faith,* Pt. II.
b. Pantheism—Universal Soul	Shea and Troyer (Trans.), *The Dabistan,* pp. 173–296.
c. Polytheism—Trinity: Shiva, Vishnu, Brahma	Gaer, *How the Great Religions Began,* Book I.
d. Reincarnation—meaning and purpose of life	*Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences,* Vol. II, "Brahmanism and Hinduism."
	Jane and Paul will probably want to work on religion as expressed in art and architecture—cave temples, Buddhist temples and sculpture, Hindu temples (Taj Mahal). Suggest they consult: Cheney, *World History of Art,* Ch. 10. Gardner, *Art through the Ages,* 3rd Ed., Ch. 8, p. 19.
2. The caste system—evolved by 1000 B.C.	

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION	SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES
a. Evolution from racial to economic to religious significance b. The major groups—Brahmin (priest), Kshatriyas (warriors), Vaisyas (agriculturalists and traders), Sudras (serfs), the outcasts (1) Development of subcastes (2) Significance for marriage, social status, religious practices, occupation c. Significance of abolition of caste laws by legislature—custom vs. law	Readings: Mukerji, *Caste and Outcast.* Douglas, *Strange Lands and Friendly People.* Rama Ran, *Home to India.* Goshal, *The People of India.*
3. The village system—agricultural base, self-sufficiency, social organization 4. India's failure to unify politically a. Geographical regions	Items 3, 4, and 5 might be worked on by committees dealing with the effect on values of geographical factors, political development, imperialism. The major factors outlined should emerge as a result of class discussion of committee findings. Three students who have been in Korea might undertake geographical study. Suggest they consult: Russell and Kniffen, *Culture Worlds,* Ch. 40–42, esp. pp. 398–491. Cressey, *Asia's Lands and People,* Ch. 29–33. Stamp, *Asia: A Regional and Economic Geography,* Pt. II, Ch. 4.
b. Multitude of languages and dialects—10 major ones c. Long history of empire—to small independent states—to empire (1) Asoka's empire (273 B.C.) —dissemination of Buddhism through the East	Check with *University Bureau for Students from Other Lands*—see if one or two Indian students might spend a day or more on campus. Helpful if they could be present at class sharing of ideas and questions relating to items 3, 4, 5.
(2) Akbar's empire (1556 A.D.) —Mogul dynasty (3) British imperialism under the East India Co.—terri-	Readings: Steiger, *History of the Far East,* Ch. 3, 7, 15, 26 Wallbank and Taylor, *Civilization*

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION	SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES
torial control consolidated (4) Separation of India into Pakistan and India 5. Invasions which have influenced Indian thinking a. Indo-Aryan—*ca.* 2000 B.C.	*Past and Present,* Vol. I (3rd Ed.), Ch. 3, 7, 11, 20. Vol. II (2nd Ed.), Ch. 10. Wallbank, *India* Hoyland, *Indian Crisis: the Background* Sen, *The Pageant of India's History* Garrett, *The Legacy of India*
b. Alexander the Great—326 B.C.—Hellenistic influences	(Look for leads into Near East problems)
c. Mohammedans—1175–1450—clash of Hindu and Islamic faiths	Lectures by resource staff on the social psychology of imperialism and nationalism
d. Western domination—Portuguese, Dutch, French, British (1) Role of British East India Co. (2) Relationships with native rulers (3) Internal improvement of the nineteenth century—railroads, canals, communications, education (4) After 1858—India under rule of Crown through appointed viceroys a. Preparation for self-rule b. Gandhi's policy of nonviolence	
D. Indian contacts with people and ideas that represent democracy; experiences judged by values and beliefs underlying Indian culture	Group discussion, supporting major points with evidence from reading and other reliable sources.
1. Largely determined by contacts with British	
a. Training of an elite among Indians	

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION **SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES**

   b. French-English warfare using Indian troops
   c. Flouting of Indian customs (Sepoy Rebellion—1856)
   d. Making of British fortunes through cheap labor
   e. Eradication by law of Indian customs (e.g., suttee)
   f. The transmission to India of Western nationalism—learning that nation should have self-determination; learning to cherish and develop one's own culture; concept of Asia for the Asians as related to nationalism.

2. Recent contacts with the United States

   a. How interpret British-American friendship (in face of British imperialism)
   b. Seeming use of wealth and power to dominate underdeveloped nations (e.g., U.S. debate on conditions attached to sending grain to India in the face of critical famine)
   c. Newspaper reports and rumors concerning Negro in America, inadequacy of distribution of wealth, U.S. a military power
   d. Impact of decision to send arms to Pakistan, the *immediate* threat

3. Essential Indian concept of democratic nations (largely held by the masses)

   a. Use of power to gain and maintain wealth
   b. Militarism

Major Areas of Discussion	Suggestions Re Activities
c. Selfishness and desire to dominate	
d. Contempt for the values of others	
e. Inconsistency with professed ideals	
4. Concept of democracy held by educated elite:	
a. Understands and respects the concept of democracy as held by the Westerner (see Item 6)	
b. Accepts the basic Western political and economic forms which have been developed to implement democracy	
c. Is determined to utilize these forms within the context and in the best interests of Indian culture	
5. Differences in concept of democracy held by masses and educated elite affected by:	
a. Isolated village life of masses vs. cosmopolitan, well-traveled life of classes	
b. Illiteracy of masses vs. period abroad (largely Britain or U.S.) to obtain university education	
c. Word-of-mouth transmission of ideas experienced by masses with accompanying distortion; elite aware of ways democratic nations attempt to implement the value system of democracy through direct contact with the West	
6. Contrast with major concepts of democracy held by the West a. Dignity and worth of the in-	Build on basis of group's concept of democracy. Help them move beyond political, structural aspects. Take time to test attitudes toward concepts and

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION	SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES
	note evidence of their implementation or its lack.
dividual b. Opportunity to develop one's own talents c. Equality before the law d. Majority rule—minority protected e. Responsibility to respect the rights of others and to contribute one's talents f. Democracy an ideal rather than an achieved reality	
E. Indian contacts with communism	
1. China—peaceful contacts over period of 2000 years a. Contacts through trade, Buddhist missionaries b. Good neighbors—geographical barriers c. Similar family and economic structures d. Common values—Buddhist influence e. Common history of exploitation by the West f. Currently facing same problems—over-population, threat of famine, need to industrialize, desire for national self-determination	Are there interests in the present situation in China that the students should be helped to explore? About what aspects of the situation are they thinking and wondering?
2. Russia—propaganda deals with things close to the Indian—increased food supply, land equalization, freedom from foreign domination	
3. Difference in concept of communism held by the masses and the educated elite	

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION	SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES
a. Masses see no threat b. Elite agree largely with Western concept of communism: Anti-God Materialism as opposed to spiritualism Dictatorship World domination	
F. Stand of current leaders of India on the issues relating to support of American foreign policy	
1. The current leaders and their backgrounds a. Congress Party b. Communist Party	Readings: Bowles, *Ambassador's Report* Brown, *The United States and India and Pakistan* Nehru, *The Discovery of India*
2. Factors affecting support of American foreign policy a. Differences in cultural values b. Difficulties in contemporary India in bringing about change at the local level Literacy Health Development of natural resources Modernization of agricultural methods; training for industrial skills Population pressures Achieving genuine national unification	Wallbank, *India in the New Era* Trumbull, *India Since Independence* Roosevelt, *India and the Awakening East* Gunther, *Inside Asia* (1942 ed.), Ch. 23–27 Charlesworth (Ed.), *America and the New Asia*, Pt. 5 Zinkin, *Asia and the West*, Pt. I and Chs. 7, 17 Latourette, *The American Record in the Far East* Fischer, *The Life of Mahatma Gandhi* Gandhi, *Autobiography* Maybe for Bob—?? Northrop, *The Meeting of East and West*
3. India's potential power status a. Positive factors Land size Available natural resources	

MAJOR AREAS OF DISCUSSION	SUGGESTIONS RE ACTIVITIES
Available manpower Strategic location	
b. Limitations and shortages	
The need for technologically trained personnel in industry and agriculture Development of natural resources to industrialize and to acquire the necessary balance between industry and agriculture	

The foregoing presents a teacher's general guide in working through a problem with students. More specific planning will be done as the study unfolds from one week to the next. As stated earlier the sequence of sub-areas of study may change as may the particular method of work. Evaluation will be an integral part of the entire study as decisions are made regarding next steps and relates both to the problem-solving process and to the adequacy of the solution.

Much of the content is the same as that which would be included in any course dealing with the Far East. The factor held to be significant is its selection and organization with reference to a problem or situation which is real, alive, and meaningful to the students. Materials from several academic fields are utilized as needed —history, sociology, religion, psychology, philosophy, and possibly art and literature. They are utilized in ways similar to those which the student will use in dealing with such continuing problems as interrelations among nations and the fostering of peace.

Providing a Curriculum Structure to Facilitate the Work in General Education

It has been noted that when the curriculum deals with the immediate and continuing situations which confront the college student, there may be need to utilize materials from several academic fields. A given problem may draw heavily and deeply on some fields and require work on only a small aspect of another. Most problems cut across the traditional subjects of study for their understanding and treatment. This is true whether the focus is on class or out-of-class concerns. Exactly what organizational structure of the college curriculum will best contribute to meaningful experiences for students is not experimentally known. Without doubt, no single plan would be equally effective for the students in all colleges. Which of the continuing life situations are most closely related and might well be grouped together is a question requiring careful study. Each college and university will, of course, experiment with groupings of content which give promise of meeting the needs of its particular student body.

Some college staffs, from their study of the basic problems and situations which recur in the lives of all individuals, might find that these problems rather naturally group around aspects of family life, civic and social activities, the world of work, leisure activities, and spiritual life. These colleges might experiment with a curriculum organization in terms of human functions. Thus far courses in consumer education and family life have been those most frequently developed. The following catalog description of a university offering is illustrative of a course in the first-named area:

> *Consumer Education.* Aid to wise buying; effective consumer demand upon the market; consumer credit and banking procedures; insurance and annuities from the buyer's viewpoint; distribution and stability of income; governmental efforts to protect consumers (3 cred.; no prereq.) [10]

The work in marriage and family adjustment usually includes analysis of such problems as the changing structure and functions of the family, personal and social dynamics that operate within various family groups, mechanisms of adjustment, parenthood, relation of the family to the community and its institutions, community resources for strengthening family life. This study would doubtless unite contributions from sociology, anthropology, economics, child development, history, psychology, and education.

Other faculties might find it more useful to utilize an over-all threefold organization which recognizes that the situations with which individuals deal are either those involving the use of personal resources; the natural environment and technological resources; or social, political, and economic structures. Courses might then be developed with reference to the major elements within each broad area. For example, situations which focus primarily upon personal resources might be found to cluster around physical and mental health, communication (making ideas clear to others and interpreting the ideas of others through various media such as writing, speaking, literature, art, music), choices involving moral and spiritual values, and human relations and group dynamics. Situations involving social, political, and economic structures might group around problems relating to government, to education (including both that organized through the schools and through such media as radio, television, propaganda efforts), to social welfare, to securing goods and services, to international relations.

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[10] University of Minnesota, *Program in General Studies,* Reprint from the Bulletin of the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts, 1953–55, p. 3.

Whatever the structure and plan of organization of work in general education, it can do no more than facilitate and contribute to effective learning. Structure, in and of itself, does not guarantee meaningful learning. Behind the structure must be faculty commitment to the need to work with students on situations which have meaning for them and through which they can be helped to deal intelligently with continuing life situations.

Working within Present Structures

While college staffs are exploring and deciding upon ways to group curriculum content and experiences, teachers will continue to seek better ways of achieving the desired goals of education within the present course structure.

Making single subject courses meaningful.—In certain colleges it will be necessary to work within specific and perhaps narrow courses in English, science, art, and the like. Obviously these courses do not lend themselves readily to an approach through life situations which, as noted earlier, tend to cross-section various fields of knowledge. However, even here, steps can be taken by the college teacher who is convinced of the soundness of this approach. For example, rather than emphasize a certain number of compositions and oral presentations in a freshman course in *Oral and Written English,* he might relate the work more specifically to the writing and speaking of the students in their everyday activities. The following excerpts from a proposed course outline are illustrative.

COURSE OUTLINE [20]

II. Reporting and explaining to others
  A. Occasions
    1. Giving directions to a group who must follow them

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[20] American Council on Education, *A Design for General Education,* Washington, D.C.: The Council. 1944, pp. 59–61.

    2. Explaining processes for information, using material from other courses or from personal interests
    4. Reporting a speech or announcement made over the radio
    5. Interviewing a prospective employer

III. Supporting or defending an idea
  A. Occasions
    1. Writing a letter of complaint
    2. Answering this letter to justify a course of action
    3. Defining and analyzing an idea as means of clearing up misunderstandings, utilizing, when desirable, material from other courses
    4. Arguing with others the merits of an idea, candidate, legislative measure, postwar plan, or radio program
    6. Writing a newspaper editorial
  B. Helpful processes
    1. Gathering materials on both sides of the argument
    2. Reflecting upon and arranging materials so as to bring out the issues
    4. Ordering and testing evidence to support the proposition
    5. Considering the prejudices and views of the audience in order to develop a tactful approach
    6. Listening courteously and receptively to arguments of the opposition
    8. Recognizing valid and invalid logical and persuasive appeals, and using legitimate ones in presenting the topic
    10. Doing something concrete to bring about results desired

IV. Speaking and writing co-operatively
  A. Occasions
    1. Interviewing others to seek information or help on a problem or to offer services or to apply for work
    2. Carrying on informal discussions of problems of personal and social interest
    3. Holding panel discussions to share information or to co-operate in the solution of a problem or planning of a project
    4. Carrying on business meetings using principles of parliamentary procedure
    5. Engaging in committee activities conducted through meetings
    6. Writing the minutes of a meeting or a report on discussions
    7. Listening to, and evaluating orally or in writing, various types of co-operative speaking activities through personal contact or radio

Making integrated departmental or divisional courses meaningful.—In other colleges the curriculum is designed to bring together related areas in a field. Here the organizational structure is usually in areas of communication, the social sciences, the physical sciences, the humanities. If individual courses are broad, the student and his teachers will find it easier to deal with problems and situations which naturally cut across subject-matter lines. This curriculum structure in and of itself, however, does not guarantee that the desired goals of general education will be realized. In some instances the divisional designation is little more than a heading under which, in the natural sciences for example, separate courses in biology, chemistry, and physics are found. In other colleges the essential elements of astronomy, physics, chemistry, and geology may truly be related, but related with reference to such topics as theories of light, liquids and gases, bodies in motion.

The college teacher, working within this structure, need not be limited by such interpretations but can select and develop content with reference to present and continuing life situations. The following course description suggests the way in which one teachers college helps students to draw upon the graphic and plastic arts, music, and literature in meeting such situations.

> *The Arts in Individual Development.*—Eighteen credit hours. Required of all freshmen except by special permission. Continuous through the year. Credit earned in this core area will, if transferred to another college, be listed on the transcript as art 3 hours, music 3 hours, literature 3 hours, and composition 9 hours.
>
> The course includes related experiences in the fields of literature; the plastic, graphic, and home arts; and music and the dance. The course utilizes materials from these fields in contributing to the solution of the *student's problems of leisure and recreation, dress, and the creation of a satisfying physical environment; in developing in him the desire to explore his own resourcefulness and to participate in projects designed to further the cultural and recreational life of the college campus and surrounding community.* Emphasis is placed upon the understanding of the relation of artistic appreciation and expression to the total development of the individual. Beginning at his own level of appreciation and creativity, the student is guided through exploratory experiences with materials into increasing enjoyment of art and beauty.[21]

The chief purpose of the course is to encourage a rewarding acquaintance and familiarity with works of art, music, and literature, together with understanding of and ability to use basic art principles in personal dress, in developing satisfying physical surroundings, in communicating with and interpreting the forms of communication used by others, in hobbies and other recreational pursuits.

Take another illustration. Work in the humanities can help students to a better understanding of the propaganda with which they are constantly faced. Student concern about a seemingly bad propaganda program on television might be the beginning of a unit on art as propaganda which would include the following:

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[21] State Teachers College, Troy, Alabama, Catalog 1952–53, pp. 40–41.

The philosophy of "results"—W. James' *pragmatism,* J. Dewey's *instrumentalism,* and the relativity of values.
The philosophy of propaganda: The Marxian concepts of *exploitation, dialectic materialism,* and *class consciousness.*
Battle against the Ivory Tower (examples from fiction and painting)
Mexican murals (Rivera, Orozco) and Russian motion pictures (Eisenstein)
Propaganda for democracy—Carl Sandburg; modern poster design; musical works of the type of *An American Cantata.*[22]

The foregoing suggest that much can be done toward achieving the goals of general education within the present organizational structure, especially the newer movements in the humanities, the sciences, and the social studies. However, the evident interrelationships among these three areas point to the need for experimental testing of how the continuing life situations relate themselves for grouping in the curriculum of teacher education.

Making Life in the College Community a Vital Part of General Education

The preceding discussion has focused very largely on that part of the student's curriculum which is developed through courses. As noted in Chapter III there are important out-of-class activities which also make up the curriculum. They, too, are affected by the organizational structure which conditions the way in which course and out-of-course activities can be related when such interrelationship is desired, and they draw upon materials from several fields of knowledge.

Life in the college dormitory, membership in clubs and organizations, participation in student government, management of the college bookstore and banking service, activities in the recreation center and in the library, membership on committees responsible for campus safety, religious activities, community service, radio programs, forums, exhibits, and publications—these and other out-of-class student activities can contribute to the outcomes of general education. They are the situations in the student's daily living which have meaning for him, which have many elements similar to those which he will meet after his years in college, about which he is taking action, and which make up part of the content of his curriculum.

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[22] Graeffe, A. D., *Creative Education in the Humanities.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1951, p. 151.

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For example, the organization responsible for the government of college activities is a "laboratory in democracy." As an organization through which faculty, students, and administration jointly plan and carry out the kind of group life they want to have, it provides opportunities to work out and practice democratic methods. These include techniques for group thinking and for gaining general support for action, ways of arriving at consensus, sensitivity to the values basic to good human relations, procedures for pooling individual resources for group strength. Instruction in these techniques is important for all citizens in a democracy, but especially so for those who are to assume a leadership role.

The use of the campus as a laboratory for learning[23] also contributes to the growth of individuals or small groups as they deal with personal problems, such as whether to accept membership in an honor society or a national sorority or fraternity. To answer this question with thoughtful understanding of its ramifications, areas of investigation might include the following:

1. What is the relationship of honor societies and sororities, and this one in particular, to the social class structure in our democracy?
   a. Is the membership drawn largely from one class such as the upper-middle or lower-upper? From a cross section of all social classes represented on the campus?
   b. Are there exclusion clauses, written or unwritten, in the national constitution with reference to any creed, race, or nationality?
2. What is the nature of the program which this society supports locally? Nationally? How does it relate to my interests and needs?

Consideration of these questions and of the merits and demerits of the particular society or sorority will bring the student to one of three answers: to accept wholeheartedly, to reject, or to accept with the hope of making some changes in the character of the organization. Should the last alternative be chosen the student is faced with the question, "How do you bring about change?" Efforts to answer this will lead into the study of group dynamics and social engineering.

For the most productive learning, these informal and organized student groups which grow up around the activities of college life require guidance and counsel. Increasingly, ways of working in class and in out-of-class activities are becoming alike. The student is taking a larger part in planning and carrying responsibility for his work in a course, and members of the faculty are making available their special knowledge and experience to students for out-of-class activities. There is a growing spirit of co-operation in which youth and maturity work together on problems of common concern. For this to be true co-operation, however, it is imperative that apparent power to act be real power, and that the partnership be genuine. In college government, for example, this suggests that faculty members and representatives of the administration will be participants along with students. Their function as equal members of the council or representative body will not be to supervise decision-making but to make available their wider knowledge and experience through participating in decision-making. The same relationship applies to exclusively student affairs: staff and administration are available for counsel, not to direct. Mistakes will not be viewed by the faculty as requiring censure or reprimand. Rather, students and staff will see errors and difficulties as opportunities for guidance and teaching and for the encouragement of reflective thinking. Members of the staff especially, and students too, will see mistakes as situations which require analysis for the purpose of providing better learning situations. It is a point of view which considers the college enterprise a co-operative affair in which each contributes according to his ability. Responsibility is recognized as an essential part of freedom and initiative, and reflective thinking and discriminating judgment as requisite to responsibility.

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[23] For a more extended discussion, the reader is referred to Chapter XI, "The Campus, A Laboratory in Living," in Henderson, A. D., *Vitalizing Liberal Education.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1944.

The foregoing suggests that the faculty role is that of active leadership through counseling and advisement rather than through direction. It is a leadership that requires careful planning. First, there must be clear-cut decisions regarding the delegation of authority. Second, there is need for allocation of faculty responsibility for guidance according to interest and special abilities. Some activities, such as the redecoration of the student lounge, may be assigned as a special project of a class working in consumer education. Other activities, such as the development and sponsoring of radio programs or forums, may be the responsibility of several staff members having special interests and competence in the areas of communication and public relations. The college government organization may include in its representative council a proportional representation of elected faculty members. Club groups may elect their own advisers. Those working in the student-operated bookstore may counsel with the business manager of the college and a representative of the Department of Business Education. Another member of that department, together with a member of the staff interested in health education or foods and nutrition, may work with students responsible for the snack bar or tearoom.

In addition to providing opportunity for reflective thinking, decision-making, and evaluating the results of one's judgment, these experiences in college living also help to develop capacity for leadership. Care in planning is necessary to enable every student to participate in the activities important for him in terms of his interests and needs. The student who would benefit most from these activities is often the one who neglects them, which points to the importance of guiding the student in planning his entire program of learning experiences. This out-of-class experience of planning is itself an important learning situation, as the student and his adviser together consider his goals, the problems which need to be explored for further understanding and skill, and the course and out-of-course work which is most likely to give the needed help.

As the college curriculum is increasingly conceived as including all activities which the college sponsors, the tendency is developing to diminish the distinction between work in college classes and in non-course activities. This tendency is illustrated by the following statements, the first of which refers to the central place of student affairs in a College of Education:

> The program of student affairs at Western Washington College is planned and co-ordinated through the Department of Student Personnel Services to provide maximum opportunity for student participation in a wide range of genuinely profitable experiences. Student affairs are in no sense incidental in the total plans of the College; rather they are an integral and highly important phase of the total range of experiences aimed at helping students become well integrated, effective people.[24]

In some colleges students share actively in the development of college policies, as in the teachers college in which:

> The students participate actively in formulating and adopting college policies. The entire student body took an active part in the process of formulating the Teacher Do's (the list of professional competencies). Student representatives, volunteers or those elected by their classes to represent them, work with the faculty on the Professional Committee, the Curriculum Committee, the Intercollegiate Athletic Committee, the Athletic Association, the Sophomore In-

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[24] Western Washington College of Education, Bellingham, Washington, General Catalog, Biennial Issue for 1953–54 and 1954–55, p. 40.

structional Team, the Interim Committee, AACTE committees, dormitory administration and the baccalaureate program.[25]

A somewhat different handling of this problem is found at Sarah Lawrence College. Each student chooses, as one of her four areas of study, a major activity such as publications, social service, dramatics, health and recreation. The activity is carried on under faculty guidance and is designed to develop leadership and a sense of service to the college and its community. Closely allied to this rather carefully planned out-of-class experience is the emphasis that is placed upon the use of leisure time. Leisure is conceived as an important area of life. The student is responsible to her faculty adviser for at least eight hours of leisure time well spent each week. Having used such time to develop self-motivated interests, the student and her adviser discuss problems met and values gained.

Other colleges, recognizing the significance of student participation in activities relating to the organization and management of the college program, are beginning work in this area. That much remains to be done is suggested by the following statements selected at random in response to the question, "To what extent does your institution encourage and sponsor a varied program of extra-class activities?" [26] The following responses suggest that very little attention is being given in some colleges:

None. This is needed.
Not well organized.
Accidental and haphazard.

In other institutions, staff responsibility is largely a negative approach to assure that out-of-class activities do not interfere with course work:

Incidental to academic counseling.
In terms of effect on academic standing.
Must not interfere with scholarship.
Left to student interest.

Still other colleges report sponsoring widely varied experiences:

Orientation program.
Freshman orientation week.
Student activities center.
Radio center.

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[25] Quoted by permission from the Evaluation Schedules submitted to the AACTE by the staff of the Danbury State Teachers College, 1953.

[26] AACTE, Evaluative Standards, Curriculum Schedule V.

Entertain at local USO.
Read to people at Old Folks Home weekly and entertain them seasonally.
Special guidance assembly.

Interest in strengthening this part of the curriculum of teacher education is frequently expressed:

Much remains to be done to vitalize the extra-class program and to relate it to the curriculum work.

The faculty recommend that they become more sensitive to the professional values inherent in campus activities.

The myriad of clubs which are organized as extra-class activities seems to present a laissez-faire philosophy toward the utilization of co-curricular activities as educative experience.

A considerable number of faculty advisers urge freshmen to engage in significant activities. However, a study of student records at graduation time indicates that some have specialized in the more purely social activities and are not too well prepared to assist in the co-curricular program of the schools which employ them.

Further study of these reports of member institutions of the AACTE shows that currently the emphasis is upon social activities and that college staffs work more closely with students in these situations than in the many other aspects of college life.

As more staffs enrich the experiences of students in such activities, the expenditure of time and effort by teachers of general education will demand reconsideration. Although, for example, it may take a little longer to develop a recruitment pamphlet when students are members of the committee, they can make very real contributions in terms of ideas and carrying out agreed-upon responsibilities. Today the college teacher needs to see his work as a single responsibility made up of several closely related parts, among which time spent on student-staff college committees *is time spent in teaching*. Many of the hours now used by staff members in working on and carrying out details will then be shared by students, and time thus released may be used to guide the thinking of students as all work together on college activities. One of the problems of the administration is to see that faculty load is adjusted to provide for balanced teaching of class and out-of-class activities.

To make such activities vital learning experiences is a special challenge to those concerned with the preparation of teachers. Many of the activities which contribute to the student's general education are similar to those which contribute to the general education of elementary and high-school pupils—student government, arranging and maintaining a satisfactory physical environment in the classroom, responsibility for school publications, sponsoring assemblies and special forums, managing the school store, caring for the school materials bureau, sharing and developing the social program, and the like. Sharing in these experiences under the guidance of the college brings an understanding of what is involved in the activity which is basic to guiding children and youth as they work on similar problems at their level of maturity. Especially are these experiences valuable if opportunity is afforded the student to consider their implications for his work as a teacher.

Articulating High-School Experiences in General Education with Those in College

How to build on the understandings and skills developed through extra-class and course experiences in general education in high school is a challenge both to the high school and to the college. If duplication of work as well as serious omissions are to be avoided, and if the learner is to be helped to use past experiences in dealing with those of the present, if growth is to move steadily forward and not be jeopardized by unrecognized conflicting experiences, it is essential to understand the background from which college freshmen come, the kind of instruction they have had, the problems on which they have worked and the way in which they have worked on them. Continuity, like integration, lies within the learner and not in external logic. But those who guide him must provide the opportunities which make it possible for the student to relate the present to previous meaningful experiences. There is need to attend to the vertical integration of high-school and college programs if maximum learning is to result.

The desired articulation will be greatly facilitated when the same basic principles and values are used in developing the high-school and college curriculum—when student needs and purposes are seen as a part of a continuum rather than beginning and ending in college; when it is recognized that the college contributes to basic concepts and attitudes which have been building over twelve or more years. The whole question of articulating these programs in general education deserves the co-operative effort of all concerned. Intervisitation, acquaintance with the respective programs, co-operative study of the problem of articulation, development of individual and group records indicating the nature of the work in which students have engaged, student participation in the co-operative planning of work—these are ways for making experiences in general education meaningful and productive as the high-school graduate moves through the college program.

Relating the Work in General Education to the Student's Field of Specialization

Another aspect of the problem of articulation is the relating of work in general education to specialized courses in academic areas bearing on the student's vocational choice. How adequate is work in general education as background and preparation for advanced study in an area? For example, will the course in the *Bio-Social Development of the Individual* described earlier provide equally appropriate foundations for students planning (1) to help high-school youth deal with their interests and concerns which relate to the natural sciences, (2) to work with youth on their social-civic problems, (3) to guide young children? Can this course also provide the needed basic material for the prospective scientist and doctor? Ways of effectively articulating general education with later study in fields of specialization can best be seen in relation to the nature of the work to be included in areas of specialization. This is the purpose of the discussion in the next section.

General education contributes to specialization and professional education. It is an all-college responsibility. Each member of the staff needs to understand student experiences in general education. Only then can the student be helped to build on earlier experiences as he moves through the college program and to relate the several aspects of his college work at any one time.

Experiences in Fields of Specialization

Not only must the citizen-teacher share with his fellow students in a common ground of liberal education, but he needs to undertake advanced study in the academic fields with which he will work as a teacher. From work in his fields of specialization the student gains the intellectual satisfaction and independence which give him needed confidence, the understanding of the logic and needed control of the methods of investigation, and a source of illustrations and resource materials so necessary in helping children and youth deal with problems of living.

Differences between Experiences in General Education and in Areas of Specialization

Is the proposed development of the curriculum, in terms of the purposes and problems of the college student and the continuing life situations which are a part of them, valid for both general education and fields of specialization? When does the logical organization of a field provide a meaningful experience for the student? Two principles of learning, referred to previously, provide the guides in answering these questions. The first is that learning in any field must have meaning for the student and be related to his purposes; the second is that one learns by doing, by using ideas and behavior appropriately. As basic learning principles they apply equally to general education and specialization. Since purpose refers to thought about a future situation that motivates or directs behavior, it is important that the learning is directly related to the motivating situation. Since the translation of ideas into action cannot be assumed, it is necessary that adequate provision be made for acquaintance with situations in which the learning is likely to be used. The criterion for the study of a subject in terms of its internal logic, therefore, is the competence of the student to relate the material appropriately to the kinds of situations in which he will need to use it as a citizen and teacher.

This criterion applies both to work in general education and in fields of concentration. The decision regarding the nature of experiences is not different because one area is general education and the other is a field of specialization. It would be expected, however, that working on practical problems in general education provides a background of experience with continuing life situations. When this is true, courses in areas of specialization might either deal with more intensive study of life situations and with new aspects of them, or such concentrated study might be in terms of the internal logic of the subject. The crucial factor in the choice made is the student's background and ability; depending on his background of meaningful situations he will or will not be ready for the more logical development of a subject.

Since readiness for one type of experience or the other is not a fixed state, but one which changes as the result of new experiences and must continuously be tested, it is doubtful if moving from advanced study of life situations to the study of the logical organization of an area of specialization is desirable. As the student deals with the logically organized materials of a field there is need from time to time to raise questions that relate to the use of the material. Response to these questions points either to readiness for further exploration of logically organized content or to the need to extend the scope and comprehension of practical situations in which the content is used. While an increasing amount of time appropriately may be given to logically organized bodies of knowledge in areas of specialization as the student continues his specialized study, it must be remembered that he is also growing in his powers to see new aspects of continuing life situations as they relate to his area of concentration, to understand their complexities, and to see their more subtle implications. He must be helped to develop these powers also if he is to see and make appropriate use of his knowledge.

The foregoing, in pointing up the need, personally and with guidance, to see new implications of a field and to test one's ability to apply what one has learned, suggests that appropriate out-of-class activities of college life can contribute to areas of specialization as well as to the general-education aspect of the curriculum. Advanced study in an area may give new insight into and suggest better ways of working in an activity previously engaged in. Or college activities formerly not of interest or concern may become significant.

Various Patterns of Selecting and Organizing Work in Areas of Specialization Are Being Tested

One of the early patterns of organizing work in fields of specialization, still in use in some colleges, is the departmental major and minor. In this framework the student works in a selected department, taking a sequence of courses regarded by the departmental faculty as essential for intensive study in the particular subject. The danger of narrow specialization under this plan has been overcome to a degree by regulating the distribution of courses. Despite such safeguards, however, the course sequences often remain narrow.

In an effort to combine depth with breadth the divisional major has been developed in many colleges. The student may work in four or five departments, thereby obtaining a broader view of the entire field without excessive specialization in any one area. In some colleges the divisional major is made up of a sequence of courses that are themselves divisional in scope. In the humanities, the divisional major most widely developed, both departmental and divisional courses are to be found. The latter type of course is designed to "counteract the splintering of the curriculum." [27]

The so-called functional major is a third type of organization which, like the divisional major, is interdisciplinary. Several patterns currently are being tested. One is the interdivisional major of which the Major in American Institutions at the University of Wisconsin is representative. Offered in the Division of Social Studies, the forty required credits include: (1) foundation courses in the social sciences; (2) courses elected from a list of American Institution courses in art history and criticism, economics, English, geography, history, history of science, journalism, philosophy, political science, psychology, social work, sociology and anthropology, speech; and (3) work relating to a theme of interest within the field of American Institutions. The following statement is illustrative of one of ten such themes suggested.

> 6. *Security and Opportunity in American Life.*—With the growth of large-scale organizations, the traditional American ideal of opportunity comes into apparent conflict with human desires for security. In this theme the student may explore the historical ideals of enterprise, self-reliance and progress through political movements, literature, philosophy, and social manners. With these he may compare the drive for security evidenced by trade associations and union organization, new political alignments, welfare and assistance legislation; or as revealed by religion or psychology. He may thus seek scholarly perspective on what seems destined to remain a many-sided national controversy.[28]

The student's work on the selected theme of interest, which comes last in his sequence of major courses, provides opportunity to relate previous work in a wide range of fields.

Another pattern of the functional major is that built around the individual interests and needs of the student, and is a sequence and arrangement of courses that will best contribute to his development. Quite different courses may be selected to make up the major of different students. In each case, however, work in the fields of specialization is unified by the student's purpose. Selection may be made to provide a rounded view of a field of knowledge or to achieve progressive intensity of study in an area. For example, the major of a student planning to work in the field of homemaking in high school would doubtless include work in home economics, marriage and family life, consumer education, child development, art and home decoration. For some students the selection of courses in these areas would be highly individualized; for others it might follow departmental sequences in several areas; for still others it might be essentially interdisciplinary and interdivisional. This pattern provides in a unique way for the inclusion of out-of-class college activities as a part of the major. It also affords the student the learning experience of planning his major course sequence and defending his selection. Choices in the fields of specialization are carefully guided and outlined in terms of purposes and sound educational principles.

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[27] President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for Democracy.* New York: Harper and Bros., 1948. Vol. I, p. 73.

[28] School of Education, University of Wisconsin, *Announcement of Courses.* Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1953, p. 44.

The aim of each of the more recent patterns of organization is to avoid the narrowness of overspecialization and the superficiality that accompanies too wide a spread.

Broad Fields of Concentration Are Needed by Teachers Working in Elementary and Secondary Schools

What specialization is needed by the teacher? Increasingly those responsible for staffing secondary schools, as has long been true for elementary schools, are asking for individuals who have understanding of broad interrelationships and practical applications of knowledge. This is in keeping with movements toward a more functional type of educational program for children and youth. The elementary-school teacher has always been responsible for guiding children in working with a number of fields of knowledge. More and more, high-school teachers are being asked to work with youth in the social studies rather than in history or economics only, to guide students in understanding the natural sciences rather than the single subject of chemistry, to work in core programs. As a part of the general-education movement, high-school offerings often cut across subject lines and integrate related areas of the liberal studies. Further, most high-school teachers in their first teaching years work in smaller high schools which require them to teach in two or three different fields. Too narrow specialization, therefore, does not adequately prepare the student for his early teaching responsibilities.

The kind of work in which the young high-school teacher engages, and the changing nature of the high-school curriculum, suggest that currently he needs broad, advanced preparation in at least two divisions. This might mean, for example, specialization in the natural sciences and mathematics, in communications and the humanities, or in social sciences and the humanities. If from thirty-five to fifty credit points are allocated to work in two divisions, this should give opportunity for both the depth and breadth of study required by the high-school teacher. Especially is this true if the courses and other experiences to be included in the fields of specialization are selected with reference to the student's particular interests and needs. As the high-school curriculum moves increasingly toward the core program in general education, differentiated specialization may be needed for those teachers who work with core groups and those who work with students in areas of special interest. Rather broad specialization in two divisions would seem to meet the needs of the latter group. For those working in the core part of the program it may be more useful to concentrate on achieving greater depth of understanding in major areas of general education, together with the development of special competence in one field.

What should be the nature of specialization for the person who will teach in the elementary school? Most elementary-school teachers work in self-contained classrooms and are responsible for the total growth of each child, with aid in some schools from specialists in music, art, and physical education. Even with such assistance the classroom teacher often needs to help children work with the media of these fields when the specialist is not available. While the elementary-school teacher is a specialist in child development, he will have an advantage if, in addition to greater depth of understanding in general education, he has special competence in one teaching area. First, there is the confidence that accrues when one is able to make a special contribution. Second, if each teacher in an elementary school is a specialist in a different area, he can serve as a resource for other teachers. For example, the fifth-grade teacher who has a special interest and competence in science can contribute to the work of the entire school by keeping others informed of new developments and new materials. He can also serve as a consultant to other teachers and to the children with whom they work. In turn, he may receive similar help in the area of children's literature from the third-grade teacher whose hobby is collecting children's books and studying reading interests. Such a plan retains the values inherent in the discarded departmental organization without the disadvantages of fragmentation of the child's life which can result from working with five or six teachers no one of whom "sees him whole," and of the concomitant lack of integration of his experiences. The specialization of the prospective elementary-school teacher, then, should include advanced work in each of the major divisions of knowledge with more extended study in one area.

Work in Areas of Specialization Is Selected with Reference to the Professional Goals and Needs of the Individual Student

Not all that the teacher-to-be will need to know over the years of teaching can be mastered in college under any plan of specialization. Therefore it is especially important that work in fields of concentration be developed so as to provide the greatest possible growth during the period of college study and to assure continuing interest in and ability to study "on the job." Earlier discussions of meaningful and efficient learning suggest that a sequence of advanced courses and out-of-class activity planned with reference to the needs and interests of the individual student is required. Even in the single-purpose college, where courses in advanced subject-matter preparation can be particularly designed for prospective teachers, there is need for each student to be guided in the selection of courses and other experiences with reference to their meaning for him. Obviously, there is even greater need in the multi-purpose institution where work in areas of specialization must serve the needs of students with different vocational interests.

In helping the prospective elementary or the secondary-school teacher to plan productive experiences in areas of concentration, as he moves through his college program, several factors are taken into account. First, effective learning requires that areas of study in fields of specialization relate to the student's work in general education. Second, as noted earlier, decisions must be made concerning the student's readiness at that time to undertake a particular type of work in an area. Is his background in the area such that he will profit most through a course which is interdivisional and which is developed with reference to continuing life situations? Has he had experience with meaningful situations so that he is now ready to deal with a field in terms of its internal logic? To help him select and relate ideas to situations in which he will need to use them, are there problems which the student should have in mind as he enters upon a course or out-of-class activity? Answers to these questions should reveal which of the available courses and out-of-class experiences will best meet his needs. If a situation-oriented interdivisional course is desired but not available, would a parallel experience in the college community give the needed meaning to the subject-oriented course? These are the kinds of questions which must be asked by the student and his adviser, as work in the fields of specialization is planned to meet the student's particular needs as a teacher.

Place of the Academic Fields in the Total Curriculum Design

The problem of articulation between work in general education and specialization introduces a question as to the place of the academic fields in the total curriculum design.

General Education a Part of All Years of College

The contribution of the academic fields to the program of general education can be realized only when the student's work results in a "measure of immediate satisfaction . . . and a yearning to go on coupled with an assurance that he knows the path forward and can strike out for himself." [29] There seems little reason to think that such a goal can be achieved during the first two years of college. Personal and social problems continue throughout the learner's life, bringing new implications as he matures. Where is the student to be helped to deal effectively with these new aspects if general education is limited to the first two years of college? If no further *guided* contacts with areas of general education are provided after the sophomore year, what is to be inferred as to the significance of these areas? Will the student regard these courses as something to be "gotten through with." Busy in the upper-class years, as he must be, with many commitments to work in areas of specialization, what attention can he be expected to give to expanding his insights in the areas of general education?

The college in which all general education is taken in the first two years forces the student, however much he might desire otherwise, to behave in ways contrary to the goals sought. He is required to minimize the attention given, if any, to his further growth in general education. The changing quality of the problems to which the student becomes sensitive as he matures, and the added competence which comes with greater maturity, suggest that certain understandings and skills can be realized only if some work in general education is continued in the later college years. The student needs help in meeting the wider relationships and deeper implications of recurring situations.

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[29] Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, "A Program of Integrated Liberal Studies," 1951.

Currently, member institutions of the AACTE seem to be almost equally divided between those limiting general education to the first two years of college and those offering general education, in a diminishing amount, throughout the college years. This division between two major placements of general education applies equally to liberal arts colleges, university schools of education, state colleges, and institutions concerned only with the preparation of teachers. This suggests that while it may be more difficult to extend the program of general education over the four college years in institutions which have a lower division of liberal studies, there are ways in which obstacles can be overcome if the need for general education throughout the program is recognized. In most instances something can be accomplished when desired strongly enough. This may be achieved through the use of directed electives in which work usually taken in the first two years will, for those who plan to enter upon teaching as a career, be spread through the four years of college. Some work in professional areas will then be taken in the first two years of college. In other colleges such courses as *Human Growth and Development* and *Education as a Social Force in a Democracy,* now included in the professional sequence, may be recognized as basic to all individuals regardless of occupational goal. If included as required or elective courses in general education and placed in the first two years of college, the equivalent credits are made available in the junior and senior years for general education courses. The plan worked out, of course, will take into account the significant factors in the particular college.

Specialization May Begin Early for Some Students: It Need Not Be Confined to the Upper College Years

As the student moves through college, intensive study in the academic fields with which he will be working as a teacher will increase. Through initial work in general education he grows in sensitivity to the problems and situations faced by individuals and groups. As he works on these he sees new implications and new needs which require further study. If he is also helped to see how these situations affect children and youth, he finds additional needs which he must meet through advanced study. All this gives direction to beginning study in fields of specialization. Students who have worked intensively on similar problems in high school may be ready to enter upon specialization in certain areas early in their college program.

Another factor which will condition readiness to begin work in areas of concentration is the student's clarity regarding vocational purposes. If he comes to college with a desire to work in the humanities program in a high school, for example, it may be advisable for him to enter upon some aspect of specialization in his freshman year. For other students, early needs and interests in specialization can best be met by a professional education course. In such cases, work in areas of specialization to which the academic fields make a major contribution would probably come in the sophomore or junior years.

A program of individual guidance and counseling makes possible the placement of specialization at those points which best serve the needs of the individual student. In colleges where more fixed patterns of organization prevail, other ways must be found to meet the student's desire for earlier contact with areas relating directly to the teaching function. This may be accomplished through differentiated assignments in general education courses to provide opportunity for the prospective teacher to work on the implications of a particular problem for his work as a member of the teaching profession. It may also be achieved, as suggested earlier, through recognizing courses relating to education as a social force and to human growth and development as essential parts of general education needed by all individuals.

The Relative Time and Emphasis to Be Placed upon the Academic Fields Cannot Be Fixed

Consideration of the place of the academic fields in the total curriculum design suggests a related problem, namely, the proportion of the total four- or five-year time allotment that should be given to general education and areas of specialization as contrasted with that given to professional education. A study of current practice in some one hundred fifty colleges which are members of the

AACTE shows a range of from 10 to 85 per cent of the total undergraduate four-year program for prospective teachers to be in general education. Without doubt neither extreme is desirable. Taken as a group, the picture shows most colleges allocating between 30 and 40 per cent of the total program to general education, while a slightly smaller number give 40 to 50 per cent. The real meaning of such figures, of course, is limited by the definition given to general education in the various colleges and by the degree to which such general courses are given a professional emphasis for the student desiring to become a teacher.

Further, many courses are not easily assigned to general education, specialization, or professional education. For example, a course in *Human Relations* has implications for both general and professional education. The course in *Consumer Education* contributes to general education, yet becomes subject matter in the area of concentration for the home economics and the art education teacher. Rather than focus upon the amount of time to be given to the academic fields in general education, as contrasted with time given to them as they relate to teaching, the curriculum worker should make his decisions in terms of the following basic questions:

1. What knowledge, understanding, and skill are needed in effectively meeting the range of personal and social situations faced by all individuals? Does the curriculum help the student to develop functional use of such understanding and skill?
2. What added knowledge and skill in the academic fields are needed by the teacher if he is to have that depth of background and understanding necessary to help children and youth deal with life situations at their level of maturity? Does the curriculum provide for development of the needed competence to use this understanding and skill in guiding learners?

Answers to these questions point to the nature and extent of work in the academic fields to be included in the program for the citizen-teacher.

Every college concerned with the education of teachers must answer these questions in developing its program of general education. Some will answer the first group of questions through courses which are in no way differentiated for prospective teachers. Others will find it advisable to relate the work in general education to aspects encompassed in Item 2 without in any way minimizing the needs of the student as an individual. What a particular staff group is able to accomplish in the direction of desired goals is the significant factor. In the last analysis, this is the criterion by which decisions must be made regarding the place of the academic fields in the total curriculum design.

Rather than the prescription of certain courses and so many hours of credit in given areas, these questions suggest that decisions regarding further course and out-of-class activities should be based upon the use of varied qualitative instruments designed to evaluate the student's progress. Through the use of descriptive records, situation examinations, observed behavior in a variety of situations, the student and the faculty who work with him will answer the foregoing questions. This type of qualitative evaluation of progress is discussed further in the later chapter on college teaching.

Some Remaining Issues

In the preceding pages a position has been taken favoring a program of general education designed in terms of integrated fields of knowledge rather than separate disciplines; a content of general education selected and ordered for most students in terms of continuing life situations rather than the internal logic of a particular discipline; the study of a subject in terms of its internal logic when the student is competent to relate the material appropriately to the kinds of situations in which he will need to use it; out-of-class activities as integral parts of the curriculum; general education as an essential part of each year of college rather than as work which is introductory and confined to the first college years; broad fields of concentration with functional specialization. On other issues a position has been implied rather than stated. It is to these issues that attention is given in the materials which follow.

What Is the Place of Electives in General Education? In Specialization?

Each institution must decide the extent to which its courses in the academic fields will be prescribed or offered as electives. The degree of prescription varies from college to college. Of some one hundred fifty colleges studied, only two indicated no electives while a third signified "minor electives." In curricula for the preparation of teachers for work in elementary schools the range in electives which may be included in the total program was from four to sixty semester hours; for prospective secondary-school teachers, from seven to seventy-two hours. Within these ranges are requirements of a distributive nature, requirements among specified courses with some election, requirements regarding major and minors. Although there would seem to be some tendency toward prescribing a large proportion of the student's work, there are equally definite proposals for increased election.

Advocates of a prescribed program indicate the possibility of more systematic planning of courses in relation to one another, with greater assurance that all students will "gain those insights, skills, and attitudes which are needed for effective living in our society." [30] While a college may offer a wide variety of courses in general education and in areas of specialization, individual students through an elective system may avail themselves of only a limited number of these. Often the elected courses do not provide a desirable balance of experiences. As several studies have shown, the programs of individual students are sometimes quite narrow despite the variety of offerings.

On the other hand those advocating the elective system maintain that "individual differences are so pronounced that the character and order of a student's learning experiences must be determined in terms of his own particular needs and abilities." [31] Obviously it is desirable for individuals to explore new fields, to develop special talents, and to follow special interests. Further, one student may be quite proficient in some area of general or specialized education while another may be seriously limited in that area. To require the same courses of all people would mean duplication and wasted effort for some while meeting the real needs of others.

Perhaps this issue, more than others discussed in this section, can be solved through a plan which includes much of both proposals if work selected (elected), in both general education and fields of specialization, is in terms of the needs and interests of the individual as they relate to the values and needs of society and the professional goals sought. Rather than an issue of election vs. prescription, the problem is one of adequate guidance in selecting from among the course offerings and college activities. The student's part in this process is in itself an important aspect of his learning, in which he is helped to select experiences appropriate to his needs and goals and reasonable in the light of his present strengths and limitations. Thus there is flexibility within the prescription outlined by the demands of society and the role of the school in that society.

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[30] Morse, *op. cit.*, p. 287.

[31] *Ibid.*, p. 288.

Should General Education Be the Same for Prospective Teachers and Students Having Other Vocational Interests? For Prospective Elementary and Secondary-School Teachers?

Overwhelmingly the reports of member colleges of the AACTE state that general education in the undergraduate curriculum serves the needs both of prospective teachers and other groups. This statement is made as often by single purpose teacher-preparing institutions as by state colleges and schools of education in universities, and by liberal arts colleges. The Chicago Teachers College adds that "parents and citizens share general education courses with preteachers."

To what extent do general education courses required of all students, regardless of vocational interest, meet the needs of prospective teachers? To what extent will these courses broaden the teacher's understanding of his role in a democratic society as a citizen, and as a teacher of citizens? Will attention to the professional implications of such courses diminish in any way their value as general education? These are the questions to be answered by the curriculum worker as he decides whether or not these courses should make some reference to professional implications and applications; as he determines whether or not separate sections of the general education courses should be provided for prospective teachers.

It has been pointed out in earlier sections that much of the general education needed by the student as an individual is also needed in his professional work. Because this is true, it would seem that general education for the teacher should not be different in essential content. On the other hand, recognition of the significance of interest and purpose as motivating forces in learning points to the values to be derived from helping the student relate his work in general education to his professional concerns. Both factors will be accounted for if the prospective teacher is helped to see the meaning of the material studied for work with children and youth, and for helping them cope with similar problems at their maturity level. This may be done through differentiation of assignments, through the use in class of illustrations from various vocations, through group conferences with individuals having common vocational interests. Where instructors of general education courses are unable to help students with such relationships, the need may be met through a guidance and counseling system in which the student's adviser helps him to focus his work in general education in relation to his professional interests. Further, the exchange of ideas and concerns of students having different vocational interests provides the teacher-to-be an opportunity to become acquainted with varied viewpoints which may suggest approaches and ways of looking at a problem likely to be found among pupils and their parents. Rather than suggesting separate general education courses for teachers, definite values are to be gained if those with other vocational interests are also working in the same course with prospective teachers.

Some see quite different needs in general education for the prospective elementary and secondary-school teacher. Two factors should be taken into account in deciding whether the same curriculum in general education can serve the needs of both. First, both are citizens of the community and larger world. Second, many of the situations faced by children and by youth in everyday living are similar. While youth in secondary schools see additional aspects and are ready for a more searching consideration of a problem, their teacher and the teacher of children in the elementary school may need an equal background in the academic fields. The teacher of youth may share his understanding directly with learners, while the teacher of younger children may use it indirectly as he endeavors to help them in ways which have meaning for their maturity and years of experience. Greater similarity than difference in need suggests the same program in general education for prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers.

Should Reference Be Made to the Professional Use of the Content of Courses in Areas of Specialization [32]

The significance of vocational purpose as a motivating force, noted in the preceding section, raises the question whether advanced work in fields of specialization should include consideration of the professional use of the content. Or, should all professional elements of the student's program be given in separate courses? The problems of professional education discussed in the next chapter need to be considered in finally arriving at a judgment on this issue. A few factors can be noted at this time. That integration of the various academic fields should not be left to chance was emphasized in an earlier discussion. This applies equally to helping the student relate his work in fields of specialization and professional education. This need becomes strikingly clear in the findings of a follow-up study ten years after the original survey of the Missouri teachers colleges. The recommendation about which least had been done was that the content of the academic fields be treated professionally. Inquiry as to the reason for the negligible implementation of this recommendation revealed as one of the contributing factors the almost total lack of textbooks written to express this point of view.

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[32] See also Chapter VIII, p. 292, and Chapter V, p. 179.

> The situation is largely due to the fact that many excellent teachers in teachers colleges are still of the opinion that no special treatment of subject matter for teachers is necessary. They expect young teachers to be able to apply the principles they learn in the education courses in the selection of subject matter for their students and therefore leave the most difficult of all the teacher's problems for her to work out unaided. The almost total lack of textbooks written to exemplify this point of view has made it difficult for teachers who have little or no training in the professionalization of courses to make modifications in their syllabi which result in a professional treatment of the subject.[33]

Should the young college student be asked to assume responsibility for integrating his work in the academic fields and in professional courses when experienced teachers are unable to do so?

There are many problems to be considered in helping students to understand how to use the content of academic fields professionally. For example, relating content to its vocational use must not be interpreted or be permitted to mean elementary or nonscholarly treatment of subject matter. Nor should the addition of professional emphasis mean eliminating academic content or dealing with it sketchily. The time given to dealing with the meaning of the content for work with children should be added to the usual time allotted to a course, for professional emphases considered in direct relation to the content with which they will be used reduces the time needed in professional courses. Many college teachers have the further problem of relating content to varied interests when students having different vocational objectives are enrolled in the same course. Just as teachers need to experiment with ways of relating the academic fields and of orienting their teaching to practical affairs, so teachers of these disciplines and of professional education need to work together to experiment with ways of helping the student relate these two aspects of his preparation. The fact that colleges most frequently report that the courses which are professionalized are those in the special fields—art, music, physical education—emphasizes the need for further study of this issue.

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[33] Hill, Clyde, *A Decade of Progress in Teacher Education.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927, pp. 123–24.

Is a Curriculum Focused on Continuing Life Situations Lacking in Depth and Breadth of Scholarship? Is It Anti-Intellectual?

Discussion of depth of study revolves first around the meaning of scholarship for the teacher.[34] If scholarship is conceived as the building of a body of knowledge without regard for the "scholar's" ability to use such facts in a wide range of situations, there might be little merit in organizing the curriculum around personal and social problems. If, on the other hand, scholarship is defined to include both building and reflecting on a body of knowledge and the appropriate *use* of knowledge and skills in human endeavor—during the time of study and later in life—there is much to recommend this approach to curriculum development. Scholarship as defined in this volume includes the *use* of knowledge and skills both in problem-solving situations which require essentially intellectual action and in those in which intellectual action is put to the test in overt behavior. Depth then refers to the development and use of the essential qualities of intelligent problem solving and action.

It is held that part, but only part, of the needed depth of scholarship is likely to be achieved through channels other than those giving attention to continuing life situations. For example, through effective guidance of their study of the "Great Books" students might develop power to read reflectively and interpret the printed page, develop understanding of the strengths and weaknesses in the logic of Plato or Aristotle, and grow in logical thinking through examining problems posed by the instructor and considered in the light of the selected great writing. Whether such competencies can and will be put to work in out-of-class situations is contingent upon the transfer of learning which takes place. As indicated in preceding chapters, studies in the transfer of learning raise some very fundamental questions and doubts when elements of similarity are not recognized. Then, too, intelligent problem solving and action require more than ideational competence alone—personal integrity, emotional balance, social maturity are essential elements in intelligent problem solving. Where will these goals of personal development be realized and the needed competencies acquired? Further, the individual responds as a total organism, and physical, social, and emotional factors operate in differing degrees along with intellectual elements in meeting a situation. How will the learner respond in real-life situations which involve more than the ideational consideration of issues and possibly an ideational involvement somewhat different than that used in the quiet and security of the college classroom?

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[34] For a discussion of scholarship for the teacher see p. 57.

A second aspect of the issue relates to the depth of study possible when attention is on a problem or situation rather than the logic of a discipline. Approached negatively, it will be recalled from earlier discussion that studies of transfer of learning give some telling evidence that effort to master logically organized bodies of knowledge without a background of experience to give meaning for the use of that knowledge fails to produce fundamental changes in the student's system of values and in his behavior. Considered positively, courses organized with reference to life situations and problems invite students to consider the roots, trends, present situation, and possible solutions. Emphasis is upon patient investigation of all pertinent factors in a situation, on methods of fact finding and problem solving, on relating appropriate elements, on generalizing in the light of facts and findings. There is opportunity for penetrating treatment. The reality and meaningfulness of the situation provide the motivation which makes it possible to stay with a problem and continue to work on it until some satisfying point is realized. The problem itself and the maturity of the learners set the limits of depth of study at any given time. Together they dictate the need for knowledge and skills and provide the drive to work until required levels of competence are achieved. Those who accept this approach to curriculum development are committed by the very nature of the problems to deal as precisely and rigorously with them as the maturity of the students permits.

Will This Approach to the Curriculum Assure Acquaintance with the Past?

In this concept organized bodies of knowledge are an important resource contributing to understanding of the situations faced by the learner and to insight into related problems. They provide the knowledge and skills needed in coping with life situations. Students are helped to discover and use such parts of the race experience as enlighten their developing concerns and the situations with which they must learn to deal. The past is used to bring that perspective to present situations which gives a sense of proportion, a sense of the present in man's development, confidence in man's ability to meet his problems by seeing the present as a part of a continuous unfolding, and which provides understanding of factors essential to survival and progress. For effective learning that leads to change in behavior the past must be used in relation to situations that have meaning for the learner. The following statement presents a similar point of view:

> . . . For some purposes it is essential to study the past, and no education is worth its salt that fails to use all the resources of history when the study of the past is relevant to the present and future purposes of education. This choice between past and present, between classical and modern, between the analysis of the thought and wisdom of the past and the experience and insight into the present does not have to be made. But for the purposes of helping students understand experience, which is one of the objects of contemporary education, it is important to use experience as an educational tool. . . . An understanding of the operation of our economic system, of the political and social forces that affect it, is important not merely because we live under this system but because understanding it will give us data we must have for developing a social philosophy—data which we will never get by starting with the *Republic* of Plato and moving slowly down to within shouting distance of our own time by means of devouring a shelf of the classics. Plato's *Republic* might be very important for this same purpose—but the decisions as to what should be read and what should be skipped must be made not on the basis of either chronology or authority, but on that of the needs and interests of students and their society. Moreover, the organized and changing life of human societies is a seamless web, and students may understand it best by taking hold of it at the point of most familiarity and moving from there into other parts of the present, the past, and the projected future.[35]

This point of view does not preclude the chronological study of the past by those for whom such an experience is meaningful, by those who are competent to relate the material appropriately to the kinds of situations in which they will use it.

Problems relating to work in general education and in fields of specialization need to be considered with reference to how they affect, and in turn are affected by, the work in professional education. The professional sequence—the third major part of the teacher education program—is the subject of the next chapter.

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[35] National Society for the Study of Education, *op. cit.*, pp. 179–180.

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THE PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE IN TEACHER EDUCATION *

The professional sequence is made up of the elements which contribute directly to the teacher's understanding and skill in guiding learning, and in working with laymen and colleagues in carrying out the role of the school in society. They are the elements which help in understanding children and youth, the learning process, the use of methods and materials in instruction, evaluation of pupil growth, planning the curriculum, co-operative school administration, and the broader problems of the profession as they relate to American society and the function of the school.

The nature of these professional elements and their place in the teacher-education program have long been a matter of debate. There are those who believe that teachers are born rather than made, and therefore feel that professional courses represent useless expenditure of effort. Others hold that professional education can have little meaning in advance of professional employment and therefore should be a matter of graduate rather than undergraduate study. Some would stress work in education even though it might mean limited attention to the academic fields. Still others desire and seek to achieve a balance between academic and professional work. The position taken is largely determined by the person's concept of the work of the teacher and of the way learning takes place.

The Professional Sequence Contributes to the Goals of Teacher Education

Many factors have combined to make the work of the teacher today vastly different from that of the early schoolmaster or even of

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* This chapter was prepared by Professor Florence B. Stratemeyer, Teachers College, Columbia University.

his counterpart of twenty-five years ago. First, universal education brings to the teacher all the children of all the people. They represent widely different capacities and interests which cannot be satisfied through uniform content and method. Second, mass media of communication have involved children and youth in a range of social situations which extends far beyond their immediate home and school community. The situations with which they must deal are vastly more extended and complex than they were earlier in the twentieth century. Often their questions relate to everyday happenings for which there is no final answer—questions on which teachers as well as pupils need to search for facts. Responsibility for helping children understand broader problems and build sound values in a rapidly changing world, and for meeting the needs of individuals representing widespread differences in background and abilities, has changed the role of the school and with it the work of the teacher. No longer can the teacher be regarded as the "hearer" of lessons and the purveyor of knowledge. Education is a dynamic force and those who teach must be active agents in guiding the thinking of children and youth as they participate in their changing society. What professional skill and understanding are most significant for such a teacher?

Teachers Who Help Children and Youth to Act Thoughtfully Work by Principle Rather Than by Pattern

Teachers who help children and youth to build sound bases for acting thoughtfully work with them on situations which have meaning for them and which are related to their purposes. But learners as individuals are different one from the other and each group of learners is unique. There is great variation in their purposes, in the meaning which situations have for them, and in the ways which best help them to learn. Forming three groups in reading, which functioned so effectively to meet individual differences in the college laboratory school, may be quite inappropriate to meet the needs of the fifth-grade group with whom the student works during his first year of teaching. Guidance in using many resources may be effective early in the year's work of a class which has had experience in independent study. For another group, with a background of using a text more formally, the same goals may be achieved only by starting at a different point. The effective teacher cannot act by pattern; what is appropriate with one individual or one group will interfere with the learning of another. The teacher must be able to identify the real needs and concerns of the particular learners, and be competent to use sound educational principles in adjusting to the pupils and to the situation in which he is to give leadership. Principles, relating to the values sought and to the essentials of effective learning, are needed as bases for selecting and guiding experiences. Only through the use of soundly based principles can the teacher help pupils to realize their greatest possible growth in desired directions.

To develop and to make effective use of such a set of principles requires fundamental understanding of the nature and underlying values of American society and of children and youth. There is also need for thorough study of the nature of the learning process and what it implies for planning the curriculum and guiding experiences. These and related areas of study, together with opportunity for testing ideas in direct work with children and youth through student teaching and other laboratory experiences, are provided through the professional sequence.

Teachers Who Act to Bring About Change in Individuals, in Schools, and in Society Work Creatively

Constructive social progress rests in the hands of those who can think and who use power and material resources constructively for individual and group welfare. As noted previously, teachers who guide children and youth toward such participation in society must themselves take an active part in their society. They must be able and willing also to take steps to bring about needed change in work with boys and girls, with colleagues in the school situation, with members of the community and larger social groups. In a society which recognizes the worth of the contribution of each individual, change must grow out of the co-operative thinking of those involved. Fixed ways of behaving by the individual should give way to action which brings together the best ideas of the total group. This requires that teachers be creative and inventive about ways of working to release the best thinking of each individual, whether he be pupil, fellow-teacher, or layman. There is need for sensitivity to individuals and to the factors and problems in a situation, for understanding of emotional reactions and feelings of self and of others.

Skill is required in the effective use of channels of communication and of ways of working together. Creativity is needed also to find increasingly more effective means of translating ideas into action. Curiosity and willingness to experiment are fundamental in teaching situations where there are always many intangibles and variables. There is need for experimentation which is directed by clear-cut goals and principles, for experimentation in a continuing search for better ways of realizing desired goals.

These understandings, skills, and attitudes are used by the teacher in working creatively in three separate but related areas. The first is in relationships with boys and girls. Planning work co-operatively, dealing with controversial issues, exploring current problems and immediate concerns for which there may be little or no easily available instructional materials, locating needed information, trying new ways to help individuals to achieve their goals more completely —these and many others are the continuing professional situations in which teachers must work creatively with children and youth. The second area relates to the teacher's activities with fellow teachers, parents, and administrative personnel. Working together to give children needed security when the behavior patterns of home, school, and community differ; working with colleagues whose ideas and actions may contradict their own beliefs and hopes; securing needed continuity in the experiences of pupils as they move from grade to grade—these are among the situations which require creativity as the teacher takes an active part in making suggestions for needed changes in the work of the school. Third, there is need for creativity as the teacher works with community groups. With his special interest in human welfare and in a co-operative approach to the solution of problems, he can make a unique contribution to joint community efforts.

The prospective teacher through his work in general education develops many of the technical skills of communication and group dynamics which are essential to bring about constructive change. His work in professional education adds to these skills to provide a higher level of understanding and proficiency as he becomes acquainted with the continuing educational situations which require their use and with the way in which they may be guided by reasoned judgment. These situations also help him to understand the organization of the educational program, the role of administration, the function of the school in the community, how to bring about curriculum change, and the many other elements of the total educational enterprise.

Nature of Experiences Needed in Professional Education

Whether the contributions desired from the professional sequence will be realized is contingent upon the nature of the experiences provided students. Before considering the kinds of experiences which give promise of helping prospective teachers achieve their goals, attention is given to some of the problems met in present practices.

Many Experiences Have Been Abstract Rather than Functional

A survey of present practices in professional education indicates many problems. Like their colleagues working in academic fields, those responsible for the professional sequence have found that their efforts have often resulted in abstract rather than functional learning, in spite of the fact that a major emphasis in professional education is upon how learning takes place. It is often found that teachers whose grades in professional courses were high do not put into practice what it was believed they had learned. While in theory they advocate planning work co-operatively with pupils, in their own classrooms they actually accept only proposals in line with their previously determined plans. They verbally confirm the need for recognizing the uniqueness of each pupil but allow no variation in the nature or length of assignments. They recommend the use of a wide range of instructional materials but in their own classrooms focus primarily on a single text for each pupil. They point up clearly the limitations of letter grades as a method of evaluating pupil growth and indicate the values in descriptive pupil records but vote against parent conferences in favor of the usual report card. There is little need to multiply such illustrations. Each represents an instance of verbalization which fails of translation into action.

Another major problem often met by the teacher of professional education relates to the earlier discussion of the student's ability to size up a new situation and to teach by principle rather than by fixed behavior or pattern. It is illustrated by the beginning teacher who uses a method of teaching which is foreign to his pupils or unrealistically applies procedures that he has observed and used in his student teaching. Another instance is that of the young teacher who insists upon achievements comparable to those reached by the children in the college laboratory school who had quite different basic abilities. Still another example is that of the teacher who works in the same manner with parents whose backgrounds and attitudes toward education are totally different from those of parents with whom he previously worked. There is little need to emphasize the unfortunate results which come from the young teacher's inability to make appropriate use of his professional education.

How must experiences in professional education be developed to prepare teachers who are able to translate ideas into suitable action?

Planning Professional Education with Reference to the Continuing Situations Met by the Teacher

The same principles govern learning whether in professional education or in the academic fields. The reader will recall the earlier discussion of the significance in the learning process of purpose and meaning, of opportunity to translate ideas into action, and of likeness between the situations in which learning takes place and those in which it will be used. For the professional experience to be meaningful it should be related to the student's purposes and concerns regarding his vocational choice. To result more surely in change of behavior which will carry over to his work as a teacher, professional education should be related to situations in which the learning is and will be used. This suggests four guides for selecting experiences to be included in the professional sequence.

First, experiences in the professional sequence should be *selected and organized with reference to performance responsibilities* —teaching situations to be met and educational problems to be solved—rather than logical subject-matter relationships *per se.* As Caswell points out,

> At one time it could have been argued that the discipline derived from study of logically organized subjects would transfer to professional performance situations. There is no question but that substantial phases of the curriculum in higher education reflect this theory, which was widely held during the past century, but which modern psychology has thoroughly disproved. There seem to be no reasonable grounds today for questioning the soundness of teaching directly for the objectives sought, and the unsoundness of a roundabout approach.[1]

How to become acquainted with pupils and really understand them; to help them have meaningful experiences and gain needed knowledge and understanding; to help children and youth generalize from their experiences; to guide them in developing specific skills such as reading, computing, interpreting maps; to evaluate and judge the adequacy of pupil progress; to work co-operatively with home and community to give consistency and continuity to experiences; to participate with colleagues in bringing about needed change—these are among the continuing situations and problems which every teacher meets. They are the problems which are of concern to the teacher of young children as well as the teacher of high-school youth. They are the situations confronting the beginner as well as the teacher of many years of experience. They continue to be points of concern in different schools and with pupils of different socio-economic backgrounds.

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[1] Caswell, Hollis L., "The Professional Sequence in Teacher Education," *Teachers College Record,* 52:337, March, 1951.

More specifically, the teacher, as he endeavors to understand his pupils, deals with such problems as: what is normal behavior expectancy for ten-year-olds or early adolescents, and for these children in various sub-cultures of our society; how are symptoms distinguished from their causes in the behavior of pupils; what part do feelings and emotions play in learning; when are sociograms helpful in interpreting group behavior; what sources and instruments can be used to secure needed data about pupils? These are the kinds of situations which suggest the way in which the findings of psychology and of human growth and development will be used by the teacher. Rather than *just* a chronological study of growth from before birth through childhood and on into adulthood, the essential data about the nature of learning and the way children grow are used to deal with situations which are real to every teacher. Content is selected and learned as it will be used in the student's professional activities as a student teacher and later as a fully responsible member of the teaching profession.

As noted previously, not all of the teacher's work is directly with children and youth. There are many problems to be met in working with parents, colleagues, and community groups. The following are a few such problems: how to share a child's progress and difficulties with parents, how to help in developing a meaningful PTA organization, what part parents and other laymen should have in determining curriculum policy, how to deal with conflicts between school policy and community values and mores, what part a teacher should take in political activity, how to help the community understand change in educational practices, how to work in the best interests of children with colleagues who have a different educational point of view. These, too, are very real situations with which the teacher must deal. They are the problems often neglected when experiences in professional education are organized in terms of logical subject-matter relationships. They cannot be overlooked when the content of professional education is selected with reference to the continuing problems faced by teachers.

The *second* guide for the selection and organization of experiences in the professional sequence relates to the *integration of areas of education as needed in dealing with situations.* Few of the teacher's activities draw upon the content of only one area of the educational and academic fields. For example, the teacher who is helping children to develop co-operative ways of behaving when their sub-culture stresses competition will need to utilize findings in the fields of anthropology, biology, sociology, psychology, and human growth and development. Teachers engaged in a study of evaluating pupil growth and in sharing such evaluations with parents, utilize materials from psychology, tests and measurements and evaluation procedures, parent education, and curriculum development. The teacher helping a child to learn to read with comprehension draws upon knowledge from the fields of psychology, human growth and development, materials of instruction, and the "technology" of reading. And the teacher who is learning how to plan experiences deals with several areas of knowledge, in both professional and academic fields, as he relates what planning means in a democratic society, what is known about the age group for whom the plan is being made, the findings of sociometric studies of leadership, and data on how children learn.

Take one other illustration. Helping learners select resource materials useful in dealing with their concerns—possibly the new airport to be built in the community—may include knowing available resources in the school and community, finding materials suited to a range of reading ability including those of a non-verbal nature, testing the vocabulary difficulty and the accuracy of the material, guiding pupils in reading, determining reading difficulties met by individuals and the kind of help needed by them, helping learners arrive at informed judgments from the materials read (seeking evidence, testing the worth of statements made, detecting propaganda). In addition there may be the related problems of how to use a film projector, whether to ask for a classroom fund for the purchase of materials through the year, how to estimate needs for materials of instruction, how far in advance of use can and should such requisitions be made. Each of these problems as it is faced by teachers requires knowledge and understanding from such areas of professional education as human growth and development, reading and the language arts, audio-visual education, instructional materials, and administration of the school.

There is evident need to integrate content from the various areas of professional study, and from certain of the academic fields, in dealing with the situations and problems faced by the teacher. As noted in a previous chapter, all that is known about learning points to the fact that the synthesis of knowledge cannot be left to chance. While the individual himself is the source of integration, he especially needs help in areas which are new to him. Conflict and confusion can result when those responsible for the educational program do not give attention to the integration of experiences. For example, in some colleges students take a number of separate courses in the teaching of the various instructional fields—"Teaching of Mathematics," "Teaching of History," "Teaching of Science." These courses are often taught by different staff members having various educational points of view. Only the exceptionally strong student can be expected to emerge from these diverse experiences with educational principles which he can use appropriately and consistently. This problem is both a matter of staffing and curriculum. It also bears on the student criticism that work in professional education is repetitious.

What we know about teaching for most effective transfer also indicates the need for integrated experiences in professional education. In the modern elementary school, and increasingly in the general education program of the secondary school, the various subjects are no longer taught entirely as discrete items. Reading is taught with reference to its use in social studies, in science, and in leisure pursuits, as well as a separate area for building reading skills. Arithmetic is studied as needed in construction activities, in reading graphs in the social studies or science. As the group in the high-school core class seek to understand the transit strike in their city, they are guided in working with content from the social sciences, the psychology of human relations, science, and mathematics.

Third, so that experiences will be as meaningful as possible, *the way in which the student faces a problem* at the time of study *should be the starting point.* For example, such continuing problems as how to distinguish between symptoms and their causes, what is normal behavior expectancy, and what part do feelings have in learning, take on real significance as the student relates them to a particular situation. Perhaps it is Lawrence in the sixth grade of the laboratory school who is observed to draw cartoons or Jim who surreptitiously reads comic books. Or it may be concern about Sally who lives next door and is known to arrive late at school repeatedly because she waits for Bob who is a senior and has no first-hour class. What should a teacher do about Sally? Or it may be the varied other worries about problems of discipline which, real or imagined, are the first concern of the student as he envisages his activities as a teacher.

Problems of behavior and "discipline," of "how can I make them do what they should do," gradually change to "how can I help them" as symptoms are distinguished from causes. Here, too, the immediate situation faced by the teacher-to-be affords the meaningful starting point. A community situation which is contributing to undesirable behavior, or a reported incident of punishment by parents for low grades, may be the immediate circumstance which gives meaning to the study of continuing problems such as how to share a child's progress with parents, how to deal with conflicts between school policy and community mores, what the role of the school is in community activity of a social-political nature, how to involve parents and other laymen in working co-operatively with the school.

The starting point for study in the college class may emerge from observation of the very different programs of two fourth grades, or of a class in grammar which recalls a much disliked similar experience in the college student's high-school days, or from responsibility as a student teacher for guiding a ninth-grade core group in the selection of their next unit of study. Serious attention to any one of these situations requires exploration of such fundamental problems as those of the selection and guidance of curriculum experiences. In addition, either of the first two situations might include consideration of how skills are built, the nature of effective drill, the development of practice materials, and how skills are related to the situations which call for their use. Starting with the circumstances which are related to the college student's purposes, there is opportunity to help him think soundly about problems which have meaning for him now and with which he will continue to deal as a teacher.

In professional education, as in the academic fields, a curriculum developed with reference to experiences which are meaningful to students and related to their purposes does not imply that all work is student initiated or based on direct experience only. Here, too, the art of college teaching is to help students to see the importance for them of study of major educational problems and to make that study meaningful.[2]

The *fourth* guide relates both to the selection of professional experiences and to the way in which they are guided and developed.

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[2] For a more complete discussion see Chapter IV, pp. 95 ff.

Experiences in professional education should be selected and guided so as to *lead to the building of basic educational principles and their use in a variety of situations.* An earlier section of this chapter refers to the need for today's teacher to work by principle rather than by pattern. If this goal is to be realized, there is need to deal with situations in the professional sequence so that generalizations rather than stereotypes or patterns develop. As students discuss Judy's tendency to seek refuge from social activities by turning to reading, or the change brought about in adolescent driving by the activities of the Hot-Rod Club in the high school, they can be helped to see that "behavior is caused." Such a basic generalization, though seemingly very simple, may serve them as teachers on many occasions. It may help them to investigate before meting out a reprimand or punishment. It may help them to seek causes before taking action that may be quite unwarranted. It may help them to see children's mistakes and misbehavior as a challenge to providing different learning experiences rather than as a cause for meting out disciplinary measures. It is a first step toward the more difficult problem of knowing what causes to look for, toward study of materials in the fields of psychology and mental hygiene, toward the building of other generalizations such as:

Although development is continuous, certain of its aspects are pre-eminent at various periods in the life span.

While various components of an individual's make-up have a developmental course of their own and proceed with a certain degree of independence, the different components interact upon one another.

Individuals differ in rate, pattern, and ultimate level of development.

However, generalizations are of little value unless they are appropriately used. There is need to provide a wide variety of circumstances in which the student has opportunity to apply the basic principles which he accepts. Two overall types of experiences are required. First there are those in college classes in which the student works on professional problems. For example, in *The Child and the Curriculum* [8] course, the student is guided in making decisions regarding experiences to be included in the curriculum for children by applying basic principles relating to the nature of the learner and the learning process. He is helped to see how curriculum experiences would differ when the principles are implemented for a group of gifted pupils as contrasted with one made up of dull-normal youth. He finds out how the same principles can be carried out in a class group having varying abilities and backgrounds. Second, experiences to test the student's ability to use principles in actual teaching situations are needed. These are the direct experiences with children, youth, parents, fellow-teachers, and administrators, which are referred to as student teaching and other laboratory experiences. They, too, are an important aspect of the professional sequence, both as a part of professional education courses and as a separate course. In Chapter VI the nature and place of laboratory experiences in the professional sequence are discussed.

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[8] This course is variously titled in different colleges. In Plan I in Chapter VII of this volume it is called *Bio-Social Development of the Individual and the Guidance of Experiences,* while in Plan II it is named *Growth and Development and the Selection of Experiences.*

In summary, it is proposed that experiences in professional education be those which have meaning for students and which help them to think vigorously about the continuing problems which all teachers face as they carry out their responsibilities. It is an approach which gives promise of providing the competence needed in translating ideas into action and in meeting new and different situations, and of developing creative teachers who are guided by principles. It is an approach which includes as important learning experiences those aspects of out-of-class college living for which the college has responsibility, in which the student is active, and from which he is learning.

Many Experiences of College Living Contribute to Professional Education

Not all of the student's understanding of the professional problems which he will meet is derived from college courses. The life and work which are a part of the college itself provide a rich source of significant experiences. Many of these, if guided effectively, can make an important contribution to the professional education of the prospective teacher. Short of working directly with children, what better way to learn the real significance and value of anecdotal records in guiding a child's growth than experiencing the use of such records in connection with one's own growth? To develop sensitivity to a pleasant and healthful environment than to share in responsibility for the college classroom? To understand the significance and meaning of co-operative planning from the learner's viewpoint than to help plan college classes? What better way to appreciate the values and problems in applying the best that is known in education than for the student as a member of a curriculum committee of the college to observe the struggle to introduce something new, to see the way in which individuals stand by convictions and bring about change through the use of evidence, and, finally, to experience the value of the change? These and the many other activities of college life are direct experiences which are rich in professional learnings.

True, the student's participation in the various college activities —particularly those related to curriculum committees, developing recruitment materials and catalog, attendance at faculty meetings, managing college publications, serving on public relations committees and with groups working on community projects—will in some cases show him the conflicts and difficulties in co-operative activity and the limitations of individuals and of group action. As noted in the discussion of out-of-class activities that contribute to general education, the student may at times make mistakes in his efforts to contribute to the work of the group. These, however, can be important learning experiences. The difficulties and the problems are similar to those he will meet, perhaps in a matter of months, as he serves on similar committees in the school where he is first employed. How much better that the difficulties and conflicts—and the mistakes—are seen under guidance that will help him to recognize the need to understand individuals and to work without bitterness toward a common good. Much can be gained if he is helped to reflect on the implications of these direct experiences for his work on similar problems with children and colleagues.

Life in college is an educational force. Whether that force is to be limited to the usual student government and social situations, or whether it is to encompass the many aspects of college living which are so closely associated with the activities in which the student will engage as a teacher, is a question to which faculties should give serious thought. Whether or not these experiences included in the student's curriculum will contribute to positive learning depends upon the guidance given. The reader is referred to the discussion in Chapter IV [4] of problems of guidance in general education. The same basic problems and principles apply to professional education.

Among the many activities in college living, perhaps none is more significant for the prospective teacher than the college teaching which he experiences. His work in professional education courses and his other activities *are* direct experiences. They either clarify or confuse his understanding of basic educational concepts. They either help him to see what educational ideas and principles mean in action or they contribute little beyond abstract knowledge. They give meaning to the concept of individual differences as work in the student's college class is differentiated to meet individual needs and concerns, or they are experiences which cause the student to wonder whether the concept has theoretical value only. The same is true of such other basic concepts as those of co-operative planning with pupils, starting with the interests and concerns of the learners, and pupil participation in self-evaluation. If the student experiences little of what his instructors are trying to teach, why should there be amazement when as a young teacher he fails to remain steadfastly by the principles to which he gave lip service for several years of his college life? The teacher of professional education, like his colleague in the liberal studies, is, by example, making a contribution for good or for ill to every prospective teacher who attends his classes.

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[4] See pp. 120 ff.

Various Ways of Selecting and Organizing Experiences in the Professional Sequence Are Being Tested

Many schools of education and teachers colleges have engaged in experimental study of the professional elements of the teacher-education program. Focus has been on the organization of courses. Few, seemingly, have given attention to out-of-class activities of college life which might contribute to this aspect of the college curriculum. Three major plans characterize the selection of experiences and their organization in the professional sequence currently offered in colleges and universities. An early plan, and one still found in some colleges, is the sequence made up of a number of *separate courses in which experiences follow the internal logic or structure of the subject.* The following offering in a teachers college is illustrative:

CURRICULUM IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Year	Course	Semester Hours
1st	Professional Orientation	3
2nd	Art for the Elementary Grades	2
	Music for the Elementary Grades	2
	Science for the Elementary Grades	3
	Audio-visual Education	2
	Teaching of Art in the Elementary Grades	3
	Teaching of Music in the Elementary Grades	3
3rd	General Psychology	3
	Language Arts in the Elementary Grades	9

Year	Course	Semester Hours
	Teaching of Health	2
	Child Development	3
	Social Living in the Elementary Grades	9
4th	Educational Psychology and Evaluative Techniques	3
	Professional Practicum Including School Law	2
	Student Teaching and Direction of Student Activities	12
	Total	61

While it is difficult to know the exact nature of content from a catalog listing, questions at once arise as to the quality of meaningful experience which can be provided within this structure. For example, where, other than in student teaching, does the prospective teacher have an opportunity to study the curriculum of the elementary school as a whole? How is he helped to see the interrelations among the various instructional areas? Is he being helped to recognize children as the central focus of the educational program when his study of human growth and development follows courses in the "teaching of" various fields? Where is he learning to work with parents? In terms of what is known about learning, is the prospective teacher being helped or hindered in his preparation for work in the growing number of elementary schools which integrate and organize the curriculum with reference to situations in the daily life of pupils?

Other colleges, also using the separate subject base for selecting and organizing professional experiences, are giving *special attention to the sequence of courses.* The effort *to build upon an understanding of children and youth* is illustrated in the following professional sequence for prospective secondary-school teachers.

PROFESSIONAL COURSES FOR THE B.A. DEGREE CURRICULUM IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Year	Course	Semester Hours
1st	Mental Hygiene and Personal Adjustment	2
2nd	Child Growth and Development	2
	Adolescent Psychology and Mental Hygiene	2
3rd	Aims and Organization of Secondary Education	2
	Principles and Techniques of Teaching in the Secondary School	2
4th	Methods Course in Major Field	3
	Student Teaching	10
	Principles and Philosophy of Secondary Education	2
	Practicum in Secondary Education	2
	Total	27

The difference in the total number of hours included in the professional sequence in the two programs is interesting even in view of the fact that some fifteen semester hours, in courses like *Art* *for the Elementary Grades* and *Language Arts in the Elementary Grades,* may be subject-matter courses for the elementary-school teacher. Is the remaining difference of some twenty hours due to variations in the professional needs of prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers? Or, does the attention to sequence of experiences so facilitate learning that less total time is required? While answers to these questions cannot be derived from the data at hand, they are questions which are crucial.

The second organizational plan has developed from recognition of the need to bring together related areas of learning. As in general education, college faculties have been working to reduce the fragmentation which has characterized the professional sequence made up of separate courses in child psychology, adolescent psychology, principles of teaching, the curriculum, and the myriad of methods courses in the various instructional areas. One result of this effort has been the *development of larger block courses which combine elements from various professional fields:*

> One marked trend in the co-operative study was in the direction of combining elements of professional education into a few relatively large and inclusive units; there was a distinct movement away from reliance upon a great number of short, specialized, and quite distinct courses. The purpose was to assure greater continuity of experience and closer attention to interrelationships of various kinds, and at the same time to make possible more flexibility and variety.[5]

This development has been most pronounced in two areas—within the field of psychology and human development, and between this field and curriculum development. The separate courses in child psychology, adolescent psychology, educational psychology, and in some instances general psychology, have been brought together in a larger block dealing with *human growth and development* from the earliest years into adulthood. When the content has been truly integrated, not only has this trend eliminated fragmentation, but it has helped the student to see the human organism as a whole. It has also given the prospective teacher an opportunity to see what lies back of the needs and responses of the particular age group with whom he works, and to know something of what lies ahead for the learner in terms of his developmental tasks. This is a very important factor in helping the teacher-to-be to understand the significance of continuity in the experiences of pupils in the several divisions of the school system.

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[5] Commission on Teacher Education, *The Improvement of Teacher Education.* Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1946, pp. 94–95.

A similar type of integration has taken place in courses relating to *the learner and his curriculum.* Block courses in both areas are clearly seen in the professional sequence of the New York State teachers colleges:

PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Year	Course Area	Semester Hours
1st	Child Development	6
2nd	Child and the Curriculum	6
3rd	Child and the Curriculum	6
	Student Teaching	15
4th	Professional Sequence Seminar	3
	Total	36

The *Child and the Curriculum* block, extending over a two-year period, relates the work in child development to the selection and guidance of curriculum experiences. It replaces earlier courses such as the curriculum of the elementary school and teaching methods and materials in the various subject fields. When first introduced in some colleges the course was essentially a series of smaller courses: a unit in general curriculum followed by one on the teaching of arithmetic, followed by units on each of the other subjects of study —taught by different members of the staff but co-ordinated by one instructor. This type of fragmentation, like that of the early survey courses in general education, was soon recognized. Steps have been taken in a number of colleges to relate the content of the several areas around the situations faced by the teacher in developing the curriculum with children—helping children participate in group discussion, helping them follow and understand a presidential or local election, teaching them to read, working with them on a dramatization. The following statement is illustrative of such an effort:

> *The Child and the Curriculum*—15 semester hours (Over two semesters of sophomore year)
>
> The study of children and their development is the unifying focus of this course. The elementary school program is studied through observing children and sharing in their activities. Techniques and principles of teaching are drawn from students' experiences with children. This integrated course, with children as the center of the learning process . . . includes work formerly offered in a number of special professional subject matter and Education courses. Every effort is made to meet students' individual needs. Teachers in the laboratory school and in the several divisions of the College aid students by guiding their work with children. Active co-operation with the District of Columbia

schools is maintained so that students explore the resources of the school system in which they will teach.[6]

Similar efforts to relate experiences in professional education are being made in state colleges and universities. The following outlines of the professional sequence for students who plan to work in the secondary school are illustrative. The first, offered in a state college, is a program in which professional education is begun in the junior year. The second is a university program in which those parts of the professional sequence given in the first two years are common for both prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION SEQUENCE—SECONDARY EDUCATION[7]

Year	Course or Activity	Semester Hours
3rd	Secondary Education (Two weeks full-time in a high school, followed by course work including adolescent psychology, educational psychology, principles of secondary education, history and philosophy of education)	8
	Special Methods	4
4th	Student Teaching	10
	Total	22

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION SEQUENCE—SECONDARY EDUCATION[8]

Year	Course or Activity	Semester Hours
1st	Aspects of Human Growth and Development	6
2nd	Children and the Culture	6
3rd	The Secondary School Program	6
4th	Intern Teaching in the Secondary School (Off-campus student teaching)	15
	Total	33

While each program has its special characteristics, each attempts to bring together related aspects of professional education.

The third type of development, like the second, is around larger blocks which cut across subject lines. It, however, is an effort to *relate a large part of the professional sequence to direct experience in teaching situations.* Content from the various fields of education is used in meeting the problems of preparing for work in student teaching, in working directly with children or youth, and in reflecting on and evaluating that experience. The student gives full time for one or two semesters to this professional activity. Illustrative of this development is the following sixteen-point block in a university program which gives about twenty-five semester hours to professional education courses.

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[6] Wilson Teachers College, Washington, D.C., Catalog, 1952–54, pp. 54–55.

[7] Wisconsin State College, Milwaukee, Catalog, 1953–55, p. 116.

[8] University of Florida, *The University Record of the University of Florida,* Gainesville, 1954–55, p. 205.

PRACTICE IN CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION [9]
(Senior year, first semester; 16 credits.)

This experience is planned to provide you with experiences of four kinds:

1. Prior to the opening of the university session, you will spend one week in the cooperating school in which you will do your practice teaching. The purposes of this experience are to acquaint you with the supervising teachers and children and to define the specific nature of the teaching responsibilities which you will assume upon your return.
2. A pre-teaching workshop during the first four weeks in which you will make specific plans for your practice teaching, develop appropriate instructional materials, and the like. Considerable attention will also be paid during this time to the development of teaching methods and techniques not considered in preceding courses such as those needed in teaching music, handwriting, spelling, physical education, and art. This experience will carry 3 university credits.
3. Full-time practice teaching for ten weeks in a cooperating school under supervision. You will have the opportunity to teach in at least two situations and in all areas comprising the general responsibility of the elementary teacher. Nine university credits will be granted for this experience.
4. A post-teaching workshop during the last four weeks will help you review and evaluate practice-teaching experiences. Time will be spent in providing for individual and group weaknesses revealed through practice teaching. This workshop will carry 3 university credits.

One of the first colleges to experiment and one which has perhaps carried out most fully the basic concept of integration around direct experience with children and youth is the Wisconsin State College at Milwaukee. For students planning to work in the elementary school a full year is devoted to professional education in the *Integrated Course*. The following statements give a picture of the nature and organization of the work, which is preceded by courses in *General Psychology* and *Introduction to Child Development and Teaching*.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION: THE INTEGRATED COURSE [10]

One year, beginning the second semester of the junior year or the first semester of the senior year, is devoted to elementary education in the Integrated Course.

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[9] University of Wisconsin, mimeographed material and *Bulletin of the School of Education*, 1953–1955, p. 68.

[10] Wisconsin State College, Milwaukee. Catalog and mimeographed reports received from Head of the Department of Elementary Education.

Because it is assumed that growth in ability to teach at the undergraduate level is best achieved when theory and practice are combined, this course offers simultaneously the content of the usual courses in education and educational psychology and actual classroom experience. Students are divided into small groups under the direction of a faculty leader and ordinarily are assigned for nine-week periods to four different elementary classrooms in the Campus Laboratory School and cooperating schools, where they gain varied experience with children of different age levels.

Discussion at the college with other student teachers and the instructor includes the theory, psychology, philosophy, techniques, and problems of teaching. Integration is further achieved by the instructor's recurring supervisory visits to the practice teacher in the directed teaching situation. Conferences and individualized assignments seek to develop the personal potentialities of each student. Such integration techniques permit the instructor to continually assist the student teacher to express his knowledge of educational theory in teaching behaviors. Many enrichment activities, such as forums, institutes, field experiences, trips, etc., are also part of this professional year.

For those planning to work with younger children, credit allocation if needed is as follows:

Student Teaching	10
Educational Measurements	2
Kindergarten-Primary Curriculum	3
Art Experiences for Young Children	2
Kindergarten-Primary Education	4
Play and Rhythmic Expression for Young Children	2
Child Development and Nursery Education	3
Child Psychology	3
Home-School Relationships	3

The credit allocation shows something of the content of the course and is provided for certification purposes and student transfer to another college.

Whether a semester or a year in length, this type of integrated block relates content from various educational fields to the needs and concerns of students as they anticipate and plan for their work with children and youth, and as they carry out their responsibilities in schools. It is a plan which offers promising leads for vital learning experiences. However, there are several problems which require careful consideration. One relates to the aspects of professional education which should precede and follow such a semester or year. Another arises when all professional education is given in a single semester, as is sometimes the case in programs for secondary-school teachers. Consideration must be given to the necessity for time to "mature" one's thinking and to build depth of insight in professional areas. Consideration must also be given to the problem of providing adequate depth of study when the student has immediate needs and concerns relating to student teaching. Caution is required to safeguard the student from accumulating a number of specific answers to these problems without the understanding of basic concepts which underlie them.

The various efforts to help the student relate his experiences in professional education and use his learning in dealing with the practical problems and situations faced by the teacher merit careful study.

Working Toward a Functional Curriculum Structure in Professional Education

The foregoing illustrative sequences in professional education suggest different organizational structures of the curriculum. As in the academic disciplines, it is not known exactly what organizational grouping of experiences will best contribute to productive learning in professional education. Here, too, no single plan would be equally effective for all colleges. The need for study and experimentation by different faculty groups is evident.

Making separate subject courses valuable learning experiences.—In some colleges it will be necessary for individual instructors to experiment within the specific courses for which they are responsible. For example, the instructor of a course in *The Teaching of Arithmetic* may question the carry-over value of a review of the logical structure of arithmetic with accompanying suggestions about methods of teaching addition, multiplication, and the like. Experimentation in developing the course so as to help the college student use arithmetic in children's experiences may result in insights and abilities truly valuable to him as an elementary-school teacher. A teacher of *Adolescent Psychology* may have developed the course primarily around the topics of the text relating to physical, emotional, intellectual, and social development. Experimentation with the text as a resource to help students find answers to the questions about their own behavior and that of high-school youth—or possibly such a current local problem as juvenile delinquency—may be productive of high level learning. The creative college teacher, convinced of the need to apply basic learning principles in his own teaching, can do a great deal to provide functional learning experiences within the more or less narrow structure of a separate course.

Working in larger block courses.—The teacher who experiments in this manner may often find it necessary to draw upon an area of education other than the one for which he is directly responsible. This can be helpful to the student in pointing out interrelationships among aspects of professional education. On the other hand, it may result in undesirable repetition. To facilitate bringing together related content and to avoid needless repetition some colleges have developed the larger block courses already referred to. Students and teachers find it easier in these courses to deal with problems which cut across various fields of education. It is important to remember, however, that the structure *per se* serves only to facilitate working on meaningful situations. It does not guarantee that the work will be less fragmentary or more meaningful. This can only happen as those who guide the experiences included within the larger block course translate into action their convictions about integrated and meaningful experiences. Here, too, experimental study is needed.

In a course *Human Growth and Development* or the *Bio-Social Development of the Individual,* for example, the tasks which the individual must fulfill as a result of development and the essential nature of the human organism—using the capacity and aptitude for learning, securing affection and belonging, developing relationships with the opposite sex and attendant problems, achieving new freedoms while maintaining the security of adult counsel—may be studied through situations faced by youth as they grow up and participate in their world. Perhaps the situation is the one in which Jim finds himself as he struggles to satisfy the values of his family and the mores of his peers in using the family car. Maybe the problem is Sally's as she must decide whether or not to "go steady" with Jack. As the prospective teacher grows in understanding of the problems of everyday living with which youth are struggling as they grow up in society, his next concern is how the individual learns to cope with these problems. The questions for which the college student seeks answers include, among others, how does he learn, how is his behavior changed, how determine and help the pupil to see his real needs.

In the work with a college class the sequence need not be from situations created by developmental tasks and social demands to the way the individual learns. The needs of the college students may better be met through consideration of particular behavioral problems, juvenile delinquency, the criticism that modern parents give young children too much freedom and "what's wrong with spanking a child," the fairness of giving a low grade to a student who has done his best. The exact situations and their sequence must be determined by the individual teacher and the group of college students. Whatever the sequence, there will be need to draw upon content from the fields of human growth and development and the psychology of learning, and possibly anthropology, sociology, group dynamics, nutrition, and health.

Similarly in a course *The Child and the Curriculum* attention is given to the kind of curriculum which will help pupils meet their changing needs and interests. Aspects of study might be the kinds of experiences required to provide balanced growth, the organization of the program to assure a productive school day, the characteristics of the total curriculum design for a given age group, the type of guidance which contributes to high quality experience. This study would include consideration of planning by the teacher, co-operative planning with pupils, effective group discussion, development of skills, use of instructional materials, and evaluation of pupil growth as a basis for further planning and guidance of experiences. Here, too, the approach to the areas of study will differ in terms of the concerns of the particular college students—isn't co-operative planning silly when the teacher knows what high-school youth should be taught, don't they teach phonics any more, can number skills really be mastered if drill grows out of situations which require their use, should there be special periods of supervised study in the junior-high-school program? Materials from the areas of the curriculum, educational philosophy, the role of the school in society, guidance, and teaching methods will be used in the study of these problems.

Working in a structure related to the major areas of the teacher's responsibility.—Such block courses as those just discussed provide many opportunities for experiences relevant to the purposes of the college student. Some colleges may be ready to experiment with these and with other course blocks throughout the professional sequence. Starting always with the immediate situations appropriate to the particular class, each college teacher needs to have as a reference the continuing situations met by the teacher which are thought to be closely related and which have been grouped together as a general guide for the development of the particular course. It is a guide based upon answers to two major questions: which groups or clusters of problems represent the early concerns of the prospective teacher; which represent those of more mature thinking about educational problems and should accordingly come later in the professional sequence?

It might be found useful to deal with the continuing problems through a threefold organization which focuses on activities of the teacher with children and youth, as a member of a professional team in a school, and as a representative of the teaching profession in society. Courses and other experiences might then be organized with reference to the major responsibilities within each of the broad areas. The problems and situations met in working with children and youth might be grouped around: (1) the nature of the pupil as he grows up in society and how he learns to cope with his concerns and needs, (2) planning the curriculum and guiding experiences so as to help meet these needs satisfactorily, and (3) instructional materials and other factors which facilitate or hinder the selection and guidance of learning experiences.

Situations faced in working as a member of a professional team might cluster in two major areas: (1) understanding the various parts of the school unit and its administration; and (2) human relations and professional ethics as they relate to working on staff committees, planning the curriculum co-operatively, respecting differences in educational point of view, using confidential data, the ethics of professional appointment.

The third broad area—representing the teaching profession in society—might also develop around two major groups of problems. One might be the role of the school in the community and what it means to be a responsible member of the teaching profession. The second area might relate to continuing professional development in which the student would be helped to map next steps in his professional activities, to consider his relation to professional organizations and other educational resources, and to give further thought to the philosophy and principles to be used as a guide in his professional activities.

One other somewhat different kind of experience, namely, student teaching, must be included. Laboratory experiences carried on as a part of course work in each of the areas will have made it possible to observe and participate in many aspects of the teacher's work. Closely related to each of the three broad organizational areas, student teaching affords the prospective teacher an opportunity to test his ability to work effectively in the total teaching situation, and to know whether he can adequately carry the total range of the teacher's responsibilities and deal with them as they occur.

Whatever organizational structure is accepted for the professional sequence, the really significant factor is faculty commitment to work with students on situations which have meaning for them and through which they can be helped to deal intelligently with the continuing problems of teachers.

Professional Education Should Be Related to the Appropriate Academic Fields

Work in professional education is directly related to the other parts of the teacher-education program. Little attention can be given to children and their concerns without drawing upon findings from such fields as nutrition, health, sociology, biology, and psychology. To understand the school as an agency of society, and the factors affecting the growth of children and youth in a community environment, data are required from anthropology, economics, geography, and sociology. The academic fields provide the essential understandings and skills which the teacher needs as he helps pupils with their concerns of everyday living. Their use in teaching, spelled out more fully in Chapter IV, applies both to work in general education and specialization.

Integration within the professional areas and recognition of interrelations between professional and academic fields are both important. Helping the student to see and use such relationships is the joint responsibility of his teachers. Just as the teacher in the liberal studies may well comment on the significance of the material being studied for the student's work as a teacher, so it is incumbent upon the teacher working with students on professional problems to help them to make appropriate use of their understandings from the related academic studies.[11]

The Placement of Professional Education in the Total Curriculum Pattern

The curriculum worker in facing the problem of the most effective placement of work in professional education must answer many of the same questions previously considered in allocating the academic fields in the total curriculum design.

Professional Education a Part of Each Year of College

If learning proceeds most effectively from the interests and recognized goals of students, then study relating to their vocational choice should begin early in the college program. Many students enter upon college work with a vocational goal in mind. Another rather large group reach college with a desire to determine their choice of professional work or to find what is involved in the field which parents and friends have suggested to them. Each student who thinks he may enter the teaching profession has a fundamental interest in finding out about that profession—of what does it consist, what does one have to be able to do, has he the needed qualifications or what would he need to do to develop them? Caswell comments as follows on this point:

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[11] The reader is also referred to the discussion of professional treatment of subject matter in Chapter VIII, p. 292.

> The vocational objective is one of the strongest in the development of young people. Tied as it is to achieving independent status and membership in the adult community and to establishing a home, it is a tremendous motivating force. This force operates to stimulate maximum effort, to enrich the meaning of what is learned, and to facilitate integration of knowledge by providing a dominant organizing center of purpose. These effects permeate general education as well as the professional sequence if the professional objective is clearly formed and the program well planned. Thus, the whole educational experience of the student can become more vital and significant if the objectives of general education are interrelated.[12]

Bigelow, writing more recently, takes the same position:

> There is another reason for believing that courses directly relating to teaching and its problems should begin early in a college program and continue in parallel with other types of instruction. When a young person conceives an ambition to become a teacher it is psychologically unsound to refuse him all opportunity to find out what teaching is like, to watch and work with children, to check on the validity of his vocational impulse, to begin to see how what he is learning everywhere may in due time be brought to bear on the performance of his teaching task. We no more *learn* than we *grow* in layers. We are persons, not things, and the foundations metaphor is dangerous.[13]

All that is known of the significance of interest and purpose in the learning process suggests that the student should not be expected to postpone thinking about these concerns. Nor should he be asked to wait for two or more years to have help in finding answers to professional questions while he gives sole attention to general education issues. Failure to recognize and build upon personal concerns affects the nature of the interest in and work done in general education. The following is rather convincing evidence based upon the experimental contributions made by the University of Minnesota through the work of its General College:

> At Minnesota's General College, in the years when the entire program consisted of general courses, only one-fourth of the students remained for two

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[12] Caswell, *op. cit.*, p. 335.

[13] Bigelow, Karl, "How Should America's Teachers Be Educated?", *Teachers College Record*, 56:24, October, 1954.

years. After a parallel series of vocational courses was introduced, the number of students who remained for two years rose to 40 per cent. Thus, the logical structure of two-year general-education programs, either terminal or foundational, which would seem to follow from the upward extension of education (whether in community colleges or four-year institutions) may have disadvantages; and, when this structure is followed, special means for meeting these possible disadvantages will need to be introduced.[14]

In the program designed for the preparation of teachers there are added reasons why it is important to provide contacts with the vocational area before the completion of college courses in general education. Foremost among these is the element of time required for the building of understandings. Really to understand children and youth, to know their interests and needs, to determine effective ways of helping them with their problems and interests, to study their growth and evaluate the adequacy of progress made—all require competencies which cannot be developed quickly. They require time to explore, to gather ideas, to try them out, to reflect upon experiences, to develop new concepts. Caswell also speaks to this point in his discussion of the professional sequence:

> Achieving a firm grounding in the role, ideas, and insights of a profession takes time. It is somewhat like other maturing processes; it cannot be unduly hurried without getting bad results. Much more is involved in this process than course work. There is the matter of the individual's seeing himself with the professional objective. These are attitudes to be achieved over a period of time rather than in a sudden desperate effort to find some way to make a living. Even a small provision in the early years of the student's program contributes to this important end.[15]

Special provision for the maturing of ideas will be required for the student who makes a late vocational choice. It would be helpful for this student, however, to have contacts with professional work as an aspect of general education through such courses as those centering around problems in human growth and development and education as a social force in a democracy. Such contacts will contribute to an understanding of education needed by the citizen, and may provide the initial experiences which will help the student to explore the field of education as a possible vocational choice. The college which holds the individual student in high regard will make it possible for those who cannot make an early vocational choice to enter upon professional work at a later time and will give special attention to the kinds of experiences needed by such students.

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[14] National Society for the Study of Education, *General Education*, Fifty-first Yearbook, Part I, University of Chicago Press, 1952, pp. 299–300.

[15] Caswell, *op. cit.*, p. 336.

The fact that some contact with the educational field may assist the student in making a decision about his vocational interest is another reason why professional study should start early in the college program. It can have a positive influence on the selection of courses in areas of specialization and among electives in general education. Viewing his work from a professional standpoint, the student may see the advisability of selecting work in one area rather than in another. For example, the repeated reference in the preceding pages to the fields of sociology and biology as contributing to the solution of educational problems suggests the greater significance of these areas for the prospective teacher than some others in the natural and social sciences. Having early contacts with his professional field will help the student and his adviser to select more wisely in the academic fields.

A further very significant reason for early work in professional areas is the opportunity thus afforded for both the student and the college to test the wisdom of his choice of vocation. Not all who desire to teach will become effective teachers; not all who desire to teach have the needed aptitudes. The more quickly decisions regarding vocational choice can be *soundly* made the better. However, they can only be made with reasonable accuracy when there is opportunity for the staff in education to work directly and intimately with the student in situations related to the demands of the profession. Early professional contacts provide this opportunity to help the student know whether the teaching profession is one in which he can work creatively, and to help the college staff redirect those who are not fitted for this work.

Member institutions of the AACTE seem to be almost equally divided between those placing professional education in the last two years of the college program and those allocating professional education, with increasing emphasis, to each of the four college years. This twofold pattern of organization applies equally to single purpose and multi-purpose institutions. While some of the latter find it more difficult to include professional education in the early years, steps have been devised when desire was strong. Courses in education such as *Human Growth and Development* have been introduced early as a part of general education in some colleges. In other institutions, education clubs have been sponsored for students who think they might enter the teaching profession. Elsewhere a regular conference program is offered to freshmen and sophomores whose professional interests are in education. In some schools, staff groups in general and professional education are working together to give students interested in teaching an opportunity in general education courses to center their special activities—field trips, reports, special reading—on educational projects. Each constitutes an effort to provide the early professional contacts important to the student who thinks he may enter the teaching profession.

The Relative Time and Emphasis to Be Placed on Professional Education Cannot Be Fixed

The recommendation that professional education be made an integral part of each year of college, with increasing emphasis each successive year, is not to be interpreted that more time should be given to the professional sequence. Quite the contrary: the quality of an experience rather than its length is the crucial factor for learning. Currently the proportion of time given to professional aspects of the program in member institutions of the AACTE varies widely. A study of one hundred fifty institutions shows a range of from ten to sixty semester hours in the four-year programs for prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers. For teachers who plan to work in elementary schools, one college reports 14.8 per cent of a program totaling 122 semester hours in professional areas while another indicates 51.9 per cent of a program of 129 semester hours. Some colleges are guided by state minimum certification requirements. Semester hours and percentages of a total program, of course, cannot be taken as a true indication of the work in professional education. It is often difficult to know, for example, just how much time is given to professional areas when courses in the academic fields are professionalized. Also, as implied earlier, a course such as *Human Growth and Development* is considered part of the professional sequence in some colleges and as general education in others. However, it is evident that widely varied concepts are currently held concerning the professional education needed for the preparation of teachers.

Still other thoughts about the emphasis to be placed on professional education are expressed by those recommending five-year teacher-education programs. As noted on the first page of this chapter there are those who would limit the time and emphasis on professional education to a concentrated fifth year of work. Others would give the last two years of the program to professional study. Still others, as suggested in the preceding section, would make professional education a part of each year of college with the fifth year an experience as an intern regularly employed in a school but under the continuing supervision of the college. The intern may carry a complete teaching responsibility or may carry half or more of a regular teaching load, assume the responsibilities of the teacher for participation with students and colleagues in all school activities, and engage in guided professional or academic study related to the internship.

Further study must be given to the problem of the nature and extent of emphasis to be placed on professional education. Rather than recommending the general percentage of the total program that should be devoted to professional education, or that an internship should be provided, it would seem desirable that each college build its program in terms of the answers to such questions as:

What knowledges, skills, understandings and attitudes are basic to the art and science of teaching:

> Does the curriculum build competence in studying and understanding learners as individuals and as a group?
>
> Does the professional sequence develop the ability to select and guide learning experiences appropriate to the group and also meet needs and interests of individuals?
>
> Does the curriculum contribute to understandings basic to selecting and effectively using educational resources?
>
> Does the professional sequence build the understandings and skills necessary to evaluate the growth and development of learners?
>
> Does the curriculum give the experiences needed to build understandings and skills basic to working effectively with others—teachers, parents, administrators—on educational problems?
>
> Does the curriculum provide for the development of competence in helping the school effectively carry out its role in the community—an understanding of society and the role of the school?

Each college can then test experimentally the design of professional education which it feels will provide most adequately for the development of the competencies suggested by the foregoing questions. No single master design should be sought. For some colleges, where professional treatment of content cannot be achieved, more professional courses will be needed. In other institutions the extent and nature of direct laboratory experiences will suggest a different development of the professional sequence than that found in schools just beginning a comprehensive laboratory experience program. There are many ways to organize curriculum content. The resulting differences should not, however, be used to escape from critical examination of the functional nature of the work offered in the professional areas.

Some Related Problems Requiring Study and Action

Preceding pages have referred to basic issues relating to professional education about which there are sharp differences of opinion. A position has been taken favoring a design of the professional sequence in terms of integrated areas of knowledge rather than separate areas of educational psychology, philosophy, history of education, curriculum, and the like; an organization of the professional elements of the curriculum in terms of problems and situations faced by the teacher rather than the internal structure of the subject; activities of college living as an essential part of the professional sequence; professional education as an integral part of each college year. There are other problems on which a decision must be reached. These are considered in the pages which follow.

Does Professional Education Provide Substantial Intellectual Content?

It has been pointed out that scholarship characterized by depth of understanding, by continuing search for added knowledge and insight, and by appropriate use of knowledge and skills, is needed by the teacher. This scholarship should develop both from the student's work in professional education and in the academic fields. The same factors considered in relation to the intellectual quality of work in academic studies, organized with reference to continuing life situations,[16] apply to the content of professional education. Need for substantial intellectual content in professional education is stressed by Caswell:

> . . . The professional sequence should contain substantial intellectual content. It may be thought that when emphasis is placed upon professional performance as the central principle of curriculum organization for the professional sequence, the intellectual quality of the offering will necessarily be lessened. This should not be the case. It is of supreme importance that the teacher understand the why and the wherefore of what he does. In a process as complex as education this understanding requires a very substantial intellectual background.[17]

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[16] Chapter IV, p. 142.

[17] Caswell, *op. cit.*, p. 338.

The fact that teaching requires ability to work by principle rather than by fixed pattern means that the teacher-to-be must have those intellectual qualities that permit generalizing from experience. He must also have ability to apply those principles in the varied situations with which the teacher is confronted daily. As pointed out in the first section of this chapter, teaching "cannot be reduced to a series of specific steps which, once learned, can be followed thereafter with little modification." [18] The differences in learners and in the circumstances surrounding each learning experience mean that each teaching act is a unique, creative experience fitted to a particular set of circumstances.

Through study of research findings and reflection on their meaning for his work, the teacher finds it necessary from time to time to change his practices and perhaps even the educational principles he has accepted. This ability to appraise the results of his practice and to modify behavior also requires scholarship. Identifying the need for change and developing new and better ways of teaching require a high level of intellectual power and creative imagination. Furthermore, today's teacher must be able to help others to understand the work of the school and the very basic role of education in our society. To explain to others calls for understanding by the person giving the explanation. This understanding is required by the teacher if he is to have the zest and the will to do that are fundamental to guiding children and youth as society's greatest resource.

Need the Work in Professional Education Be Abstract and Repetitious?

Closely related to the foregoing discussion of the intellectual level of work in professional education is the criticism, often made by students, that work in education courses is abstract and repetitious. As the recipients of the guidance given, the reactions of students should not be dismissed lightly. There would seem to be some evidence to support this reaction to present practices in professional courses. These criticisms need not be, if the staffs working in this area apply in their own work those educational principles which they advise students to use as they, in turn, work with children. They can be largely eliminated if functional learning leading to generalizations in terms of educational principles is achieved.

Many colleges are taking definite steps to reduce the undesirable abstract nature of professional courses. Faculty groups in some colleges are working together on ways of improving their own teaching. Increasingly, colleges are extending and improving the quality of laboratory experiences and making them an integral part of professional courses.[19] No longer are students made to wait until the senior year to take student teaching to give them understanding of the meaning of ideas developed in earlier courses. The wealth of direct experiences available on every college and university campus makes it possible to give meaning to ideas and concepts for which the student does not have adequate previous experience and background. Findings in the area of learning make it inexcusable for work in professional education to be undesirably abstract.

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[18] Caswell, *op. cit.*, p. 338.

Students also comment on the repetition of work in professional courses. Repetition that does not serve to extend and reinforce learning is never justified. When the work in professional education is organized with reference to the situations which are an integral part of the teacher's performance-responsibilities, there should be no *useless* repetition. The same content may be needed to understand and deal effectively with different problems. Also, working on a recurring problem may draw upon previously learned content. But, under proper guidance, the new setting provides for an extension of concepts through which the re-use of content takes on new meaning and, therefore, is not thought of as undesirable repetition. Such use of the same material helps the student see new relationships and helps him test his ability to use previous learning appropriately in new situations.

What Is the Place of Methods Courses in the Professional Sequence? What Should Be Their Nature?

Probably no aspect of the curriculum of teacher education is as controversial as that of methods courses. How to relate work in general and special methods and how to relate teaching methods and work in the academic fields are basic problems in developing a program of teacher education.

Currently, work in methods is organized in four major ways—as special methods courses in the various instructional fields, as methods courses in broad fields such as the social studies, as general methods, and as a part of the work in student teaching. Again, no one answer will meet equally well the needs of students in all colleges. Experimentation should help to clarify what is involved in "methods" as applied to teaching.

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[19] See Chapter VI.

In the teaching-learning process, "methods" refers to the guidance of learning so as to help children and youth develop understandings, skills, and attitudes needed in dealing with life situations. What does such guidance involve? As pointed out earlier, the factors generally recognized as most significant in such guidance are: understanding the learner, selecting and guiding experiences in terms of accepted learning principles, and using resources that facilitate the learning process. This may well mean that, rather than emphasize general and special methods, the professional sequence should focus on human growth and development, basic educational principles, the selection and organization of curriculum experiences, and resources and materials of instruction. So conceived the usual content of methods courses would be replaced by the integration of professional content. On the one hand, there would be the content dealing with educational principles and their use in guiding learners as they work in the various areas of human endeavor. On the other hand, there would be careful study of resource materials to be used by the teacher and by learners. Work in these areas, as in the case of present methods courses, would draw upon and utilize experiences in human growth and development and in curriculum theory.

The present plethora of methods courses in various instructional areas, together with offerings in principles of education, principles of learning in educational psychology, and principles of teaching—all included in a single curriculum of teacher education in some instances—suggests one of two situations, either of which is educationally questionable. The first is that there is undesirable repetition of work relating to educational principles, which is one of the criticisms by students of their experiences in education courses. If this is true, it is not a defensible practice. Rather than repeated abstract study of educational principles, meaning should be added to these basic concepts through applying them in a variety of situations.

The second situation which may characterize the many offerings in the area of methods is that in which emphasis is placed on specific techniques and devices. This, too, is a questionable practice in view of the need of today's teacher to teach by principle rather than by pattern. While it is necessary that teachers-to-be know when and how to group learners, how to involve them in the co-operative planning of their work, how to plan for guiding an experience, when to organize in terms of committees, how to guide a discussion, and the like, each of these aspects of the teaching process is governed by basic educational principles. The fundamentals of a good discussion, for example, are the same whether the third grade is concerned with a safety problem on the playground, with planning a valentine party, or with arranging for the counting of the lunch money. The same fundamentals apply to the discussion of a seventh grade interested in the new thruway and its effect on their homes. In like manner, the essentials governing effective co-operative planning are the same whether the problem is primarily in the area of mathematics or social studies. In each instance the prospective teacher needs help in understanding the guiding principles and in having an opportunity to see what they mean in varied areas and with different age groups. There is little to justify time being given to acquainting the student with specific devices.

This applies equally to such problems as how to use the textbook effectively, how to make and interpret tests, how to evaluate the learner's progress through the use of anecdotal records, the place and nature of field trips as important learning experiences. Each deals with an educational resource or instructional material with which the student becomes acquainted as he studies educational resources and ways to use them to facilitate the effective functioning of basic learning principles. Here, too, devices are of little value to the teacher whose work takes account of children as the unique individuals that they are. The guidance needed is with reference to the application of basic principles in using materials of varied kinds and in dealing with materials developed around different content. These principles must be applied to a sufficient number of varied situations to assure that the student understands them and can use them with different materials and areas of instruction.

The integration of separate methods courses would be especially effective if work in the academic fields were professionalized[20] and subject-matter specialists were available as resource persons in the curriculum course where basic principles governing the use of instructional materials are developed. Economy of learning results when, as the student studies in an academic field, he can also be helped to see how the content being studied relates to the concerns of pupils. Ways of working with ideas are then directly tied to the ideas themselves. If this were done consistently and effectively in all areas, the study of curriculum development and of instructional materials could be reduced in amount and focused so as to become co-ordinating areas through which the student is helped to see the interrelationships among the various disciplines represented in the curriculum of the elementary and secondary school. Such a focus, eliminating a number of separate methods courses, would release time which could be used for work in general education and in areas of specialization.

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[20] See Chapter IV, p. 140.

The last proposal relating to the professional treatment of appropriate content in academic fields calls for careful study. There are some who feel that experiences in teaching methods are inadequately provided for in this proposal. Others hold that academic content will be "watered down" and less scholarly. Still others subscribe to the statements in the preceding paragraph and believe that professional treatment of content enhances learning. There is general recognition, however, that for the proposal to be soundly developed, as suggested elsewhere in the volume,[21] those in the academic areas who teach prospective teachers must know and understand the profession of teaching. Further, they must be willing to share ideas and work co-operatively lest the professional suggestions made in the various academic areas be based upon widely different educational concepts. Were this the case, the student faces the same confusion as that currently met in some colleges where separate methods courses in various instructional areas are taught by different staff members representing those areas. Moreover, it is important in multi-purpose colleges that the vocational interests of other students be recognized and provided for. This requires that the college teacher working in academic fields know the basic contribution and use of the findings of his field and be able on an individualized or small group basis to show how the content is related to the varying interests. This calls for high level teaching competence—competence which teachers, who believe the values to be gained by the student are sufficiently great to warrant staff study and experimentation along this line, are achieving.

All in all, it would seem important that those concerned with professional education study carefully the present content of offerings in the area of methods and make such revisions as are demanded by the nature of the work of the creative teacher.

Should Professional Education Be the Same for Prospective Elementary and Secondary-School Teachers?

Many colleges offer different programs of professional education for prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers. Some offerings are even further differentiated so that a separate program is provided for students planning to work in the kindergarten-primary grades, in the intermediate grades, in the junior high schools, and in senior high schools. The following, however, illustrates a movement which is growing.

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[21] See Chapter IV, p. 140, and Chapter VIII, p. 292.

> There is apparent an attempt to build a common background of experience for both the elementary and secondary teachers, with developments on several fronts: (a) through a projected plan to develop a six-hour sequence in psychology for all teachers, covering both child psychology and psychology of adolescence; (b) through a projected plan to unify, for both levels, the materials of basic principles of education in a six-hour sequence; and (c) through the present plan whereby prospective elementary teachers observe secondary-level teaching and prospective secondary teachers observe elementary-level teaching in order to develop understandings of the problems on all levels of teaching.[22]

The common elements in the activities of teachers who work with small children and those who guide older children and youth; the need for every teacher to see the educational program as a continuum, a series of experiences which have continuity for the learner; the fact that the same basic principles govern learning at all age levels—all have contributed to a movement in the direction of building a common background of experience for both prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers.

In many colleges this movement has resulted in a program in which both groups take several courses in education together and then enter differentiated courses. A few colleges, such as Iowa State Teachers College, are experimenting with an extended common professional sequence. The Iowa program follows:

COMMON PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE[23]

	Semester Hours
Exploring the Teaching Profession	3
Fundamentals of Teaching, including Human Growth and Development Psychology of Learning The School in Society	15
Student Teaching (including methods of teaching) Both elementary and secondary school majors have experience in both elementary and secondary schools	12
Problems of Teaching (a problems seminar)	3

The answer to the question of whether there should be common professional elements for elementary and secondary-school teachers is to be found (1) in the nature of the work and the needed competencies of each and (2) in the mutual understanding required if the learner's educational program is to have continuity and consistency. Certainly there is little justification for the complete separation of the two groups of prospective teachers and much to recommend a considerable degree of common experience in professional education.

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[22] Visitation Report. Quoted by permission, University of Kentucky.

[23] Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa, Catalog, 1954, p. 56.

Projecting a design of professional education is as important as it is challenging. Its real test, as in general education and areas of specialization, lies in the continuing growth and development of students as they work in elementary and secondary schools. The schools into which they go, the way in which they are inducted into the profession, the stimulation and guidance given—all are crucial for the beginning teacher who is to be a growing teacher. Sensitivity to the teacher's role in this process is in part derived from the kind of laboratory experience in which the student engages in college. It is especially through these direct experiences that the student develops attitudes toward continued growth and powers of self-direction in planning and carrying out a program designed to help him be a growing teacher. The next chapter is focused on these direct experiences as a part of the teacher-education program.

6

PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES *

"Learning through experience" is a catchy phrase which has been widely used in educational circles ever since Dewey challenged the traditional methods of teaching more than half a century ago. Many earlier educators including Froebel, Pestellozi, Rousseau, and Plato also emphasized experience. Just as Dewey clarified our understanding of the nature of the thinking process by showing that thinking originates in a problem situation and results in action and evaluation of the action, he also clarified our understanding of experience.[1] He insisted that the complete experience included purposing, planning, acting, and evaluating Thinking about the experience, relating it to past experiences, and interpreting its significance for future experiences are as much a part of the complete experience as the action itself.

Direct experience, as the term was defined in Chapter III and as used herein, consists in actually living through a situation or event. It refers to the doing but recognizes that the doing includes planning before acting, and thinking about what has been done. Vicarious experiences, on the other hand, consist in consideration of a situation or event with understanding but without any direct involvement.

As noted in Chapters III and IV, not all experiences need be direct. Vicarious experiences may contribute much. Only through vicarious experience can one understand the past or the remote in distance. By selecting only the most relevant experience of others one is able to accelerate and broaden his experience. However, one weakness of vicarious experience is that it is usually limited to the intellectual aspects of life. It usually fails to involve the emotional and kinetic factors which play such an important role

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* This chapter was prepared by Professor Donald M. Sharpe, Director, Secondary Professional Laboratory Experiences, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana.

[1] Dewey, John, *Experience and Education.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.

in behavior. Direct experience involves the total organism; vicarious experience involves only a part.

The word *laboratory* calls to mind a room filled with test tubes, grotesque glass vessels, strange odors, and serious men carefully recording data in a notebook. Other laboratories may include humming machines, delicate ammeters, and the stimulating odor of ozone. Still others may consist of thousand-acre tracts where rough-clad men tramp through the underbrush picking up a sample of soil, a leaf from a tree, a flask of water from a pool. All these are laboratories because they provide facilities for discovering truth. First, a laboratory implies a directing idea, technically called a hypothesis. This hypothesis dictates how the apparatus will be assembled, what materials will be collected, and what observations made. Second, a laboratory implies the testing of an idea. Careful observation, repeated measurement, and verified results must support the conclusions—must prove the thesis. Third, a laboratory implies analysis and the application of new knowledge so that it results in increased understanding.

In one sense the word *professional* as used in professional laboratory experiences refers to any experience pertinent to teaching. But a professional person is more than a technician. A professional person is one who, because of his breadth and depth of understanding and his skill in thinking, is able to make judgments in problem situations where values as well as technical operations are involved. He has to make some judgments beyond the known facts—judgments to which society attaches great significance. The laboratory experiences for the teacher-to-be must be those which will contribute to his ability to make judgments in a problem situation—to apply principles to new situations or to develop skills in new surroundings.

Those who are engaged in teacher education know that professional laboratory experiences refer to "all those contacts with children, youth, and adults (through observation, participation and teaching) which make a direct contribution to the understanding of individuals and their guidance in the teaching learning process." [2]

A professional laboratory experience has the following characteristics:

1. It is guided experience which makes a direct contribution to the student's understanding of individuals and competence in their guidance in teaching-learning situations.

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[2] Flowers, John G. et al., *School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education.* Oneonta, New York: American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1948, p. 7.

2. It requires the student's involvement in interaction with children, youth or adults.
3. It provides opportunity for the student, in terms of his level of readiness, to participate in representative activities of the teacher.[3]

Increasing Recognition

During the past ten years professional laboratory experiences have been expanded to play an increasingly important role in teacher education. This expanded concept of direct experiences in teacher education resulted first in a radical reorganization of the supervised teaching program. The one hour a day spent in the laboratory school and crowded into a busy college schedule provided neither the involvement nor the reality needed. Colleges began to assign students to the schools for a full day. Students became conscious that teachers direct activity clubs, conduct homerooms, supervise study halls, participate in faculty planning committees, and work with individual pupils and parents. With the expansion of student teaching, college staffs started to explore other ways in which they could directly involve students in real community activities, in working with boys and girls, and in responsible participation in the life of the college.

In the ideal situation, a teacher-to-be will supplement his introductory course with some active involvement in the schools. The courses in Child Psychology or Human Development and Education will include observation of children and participation in such activities as scout troops, boys clubs, Sunday schools. Many academic courses will be supplemented and enriched by some relevant experience in the work-a-day world with adult members of the community. This will lead to the full-time experience of responsible student teaching under supervision.

Most members of the teaching profession are evincing increased interest in professional laboratory experiences. If there is any one point that is common to most of the two hundred twenty-five evaluation reports made by the two hundred twenty-five different teams who participated in the intervisitation program of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education it is the almost universal suggestion that more opportunities for professional laboratory experiences prior to student teaching be provided.

The following statement is typical of the position expressed in many of the reports:

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[3] Leadership Training Conference for AACTE Workshops, Illinois State Normal University, April, 1950.

> The visiting committee believes that provisions for laboratory experiences prior to student teaching are somewhat inadequate. Very little attention is given to providing such experiences during the first two years and only a moderate amount is provided in the third year. It is suggested that attention be given to the possibility of providing community experiences with children by the college students beginning with the Freshman year and it is further believed that there are many youth-serving agencies and other groups in the community which would be willing to cooperate with college officials in the achievement of the objective.

Students in introductory education courses have been introduced to the schools. The schools which they had seen through the eyes of a pupil became entirely different institutions when seen through the eyes of a potential teacher. Departments of art, music, and homemaking have organized Saturday classes where their students could work with children. The college staffs have been exploring an uncharted land. They know their goals but there are no road maps to make the way easy. For them as well as for the students it is a new experience and both have much to learn.

It would be unfair to conclude that colleges for teacher education have been neglecting this phase of teacher preparation. As a matter of fact there is evidence that there has been more ferment, more thought, and more action in this area than in others during the past ten years.

Perhaps it is this recent reawakening to the potentialities of direct experience which has made both staffs and evaluation teams critical of existing practices. Another contributing factor could be the almost limitless possibilities for direct experience: experiences with children in school rooms, on playgrounds, in scout troops, in Sunday schools, in the multitude of community organizations; experiences with parents and school patrons in the study groups, P.T.A.'s, school board meetings, and social gatherings; experiences with peer groups in college where the attention is focused on effective interpersonal relations and leadership; experiences of the citizen-teacher in the community.

Emphasis on direct experience is not confined to professional courses. A recent workshop on improving college teaching devoted approximately half of its time to consideration of various programs of direct experience in learning.[4] One such program is the "Citizenship Clearing House" which is a nationwide movement to involve students of government directly in political activity. It is called

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[4] Seventh Indiana Workshop on Teacher Education, *Teachers College Journal,* Vol. XXVI, No. 6, May, 1955, pp. 103–116.

"the action program." Foundation support has made it possible for the Citizenship Clearing House to function in more than twenty-five colleges scattered throughout the nation. Directors of the Clearing House insist that in political science there can be no clear separation of theory from practice; on the contrary the intelligent person will learn both. Since politics is the laboratory of the political scientists, students are involved in politics not merely as observers but as active participants.

A number of colleges have made arrangements with The American University for students to have a semester in Washington, D.C. This semester involves observation, study, and some participation in the activities of the government. Another college has established what it calls a program of community dynamics in which certain students and faculty members in the college set about helping another community improve the quality of living in that community. This program is applied to a neighboring community during the school year but during the summer it is applied to a community in a foreign country. The increased interest in travel is suggestive of the value placed on direct experience. Hardly a college or university fails to include one trip for credit in its catalog. Direct experience is indeed as valuable in the teaching of the liberal arts as it is in the professions.

Further evidence of the increasing importance of direct experience is provided by a report of a committee of leaders in teacher education which examined the preparation of teachers. They listed twelve major needs in teacher education. In two of the twelve needs the contribution of direct experience was emphasized:

> The need for an increasing amount of laboratory experience: first hand study of a community, its agencies, its culture, and its people; of children; and of schools, with an emancipation from slavish devotion to the textbook in education courses as well as other fields. The need for a more realistic study of children of all ages, one that involves living with and working with them in school, home, playground, community organization and camp.[5]

An Accepted Practice

Working with boys and girls has had a prominent place in most programs designed for preparing teachers. The time spent in preparation has increased. Content of courses has changed. The whole philosophy of teacher preparation has been reconstructed, but direct experience with children has retained its central role.

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[5] Harap, Henry, Chairman, Committee on Curriculum and Instruction, *Preparation of Teachers in the Area of Curriculum and Instruction*, Studies in Education, Monograph Number Two, The National Society of College Teachers of Education. Austin, Texas: University of Texas, Printing Division, 1951, p. 2.

The early normal schools established by Horace Mann in Massachusetts envisioned close contact with children either in a model school conducted by the normal school or in the community schools. As normal schools became teachers colleges they continued to provide direct experiences. Universities similarly have come to provide some contact with children and youth and a period of supervised student teaching for all students preparing for teaching.

From time to time in the history of education various movements have been instituted to vitalize formal learning by so relating it to a purposeful activity that learning becomes, so far as the pupil is concerned, the by-product. Ellsworth Collings' rural school in Missouri, the Dewey School at the University of Chicago, and many of the progressive schools of the past decade emphasized the importance of doing.

One of the most ambitious of all national programs of curriculum improvement, the current Citizenship Education Project, represents, in essence, an appeal and a program whereby teachers can teach citizenship by guiding their pupils into more active participation in community life. It aims at learning by doing and doing better because of the learning. The Citizenship Education Project is currently working with colleges and universities to stimulate their interest in incorporating projects, activities, and direct experiences into the regular academic courses of the college.

The controversial "Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education" has two primary objectives: the improvement of undergraduate curricula in arts and science and the development of a fifth year devoted entirely to professional education with primary emphasis on direct public-school experience. During the 1953–54 school year in the Arkansas experiment, the student's work of the fifth year was organized as a continuum—a unified pattern of experiences. There were two days of orientation; three weeks of directed observation in selected public schools; thirteen weeks of campus-oriented activity, including seminars, directed reading, conferences, and observation; twenty weeks of increasingly responsible participation in a public school under the guidance of a selected co-operating teacher—with continued reading, research, and conferences; and one week of evaluation and planning for further study. One of the objections made to this program is absence of any direct experience with children or schools in the undergraduate program.

Direct experience in teaching has come to be legally recognized as one of the requirements for the certification of teachers in most of the forty-eight states. Colleges throughout the country are continuing to rely upon direct experience as a major element in their programs of teacher preparation, at all levels.

The Rationale

The rationale of professional laboratory experiences has roots in our democratic value system and in the science of learning.

Our democratic faith provides the normative foundation—the belief that human life is improvable; the belief that the ultimate value is not fixed but is dynamic and emerging; the belief in the worth of the individual, the uncommon man; the belief that the human mind is able to create new and better goals and new and better ways of achieving those goals when it is free to do so. Democracy insists that preparation for life must not be limited to preparation for living in a past culture. It must prepare the individual to live in a new emerging world. Education, then, consists not so much in the mastery of specific techniques and skills as in an ever-increasing ability to solve problems.

The belief that all genuine education comes about through experience provides the psychological foundation. Contributing to this belief are three assumptions which have been tested and have come to command a considerable degree of acceptance: that one learns best when he is actively involved in achieving his purposes, when he is solving his problems; that the funded experience of others should serve as resource material for learning but should not circumscribe it; that valuing, thinking, and acting are all parts of the process of living and cannot be divorced from each other.

Learning, in the broad sense of the term, is essentially a process of experiencing and of reflecting upon the meaning of what is experienced. There is close identification between experiential learning and the inductive method of science which traces back to Aristotle. The method of science is the method of observation and experimenting, thinking and doing, doing and thinking.

The modern concept of the role of direct experience is that it shall provide the learner with an opportunity to solve his problem. Problems arise when one is perplexed because he is not sure of his goals or of how to reach them. Direct experience then becomes a learning laboratory—a problem situation in which the learner has an opportunity to analyze a problem; bring his information, under-

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standing, and skill to bear upon the problem; plan an attack upon the problem; actually apply the plan to the solution; and finally step back and take an analytical look at the whole process.

The following example shows how a supervised teaching program is an experience in problem solving. Application for the opportunity to engage in student teaching may be accepted as proof of the student's interest in teaching. An interview with the director and a visit to the school in which the student will work will help identify the problems to be faced—problems such as how to motivate students, how to provide leadership, how to use instructional materials, how to guide learning. Analysis of these problems will point out the relevance of understandings already held and suggest the need for additional knowledge. A campus seminar helps provide the requisite understanding and the further opportunity to plan his future action. As the student then goes to his school he will carry out his plan, modifying it or developing new plans as the conditions dictate, but constantly referring to his plan and to his fund of knowledge. When he returns to the campus seminar, he has an opportunity to analyze his total experience and compare his observations and conclusions with those of other students and more experienced teachers. Such a program provides a complete experience combining purposing, planning, studying what others have learned, acting, and evaluating.

The rationale which guided the early laboratory experiences in Horace Mann's normal schools was of a different order. The early "practice teaching" aimed primarily at transmitting to the prospective teacher the skills and techniques that the master teacher had acquired. The word "training" is no longer used in connection with teacher preparation. Training connotes the unreasoned acceptance of a pattern. More than the terminology was changed when the title *State Teachers College* was substituted for that of *Normal Training School.* The early American normal school was the school where a prospective teacher could be trained in the proper procedures. The dropping of the word "normal" recognized a distinct shift in the fundamental concept of teacher education. The term "normal school," which was a direct importation from the French *Ecole Normale,* literally translated means the *correct school. Normale* included the concept of the right, or proper way of teaching. The teacher then was trained very much as a linotypist is trained today.

Two major approaches to teacher education can be identified. The earlier programs of teacher preparation assumed that learning-teaching was a relatively simple process which could be learned by imitation. It assumed that there was a correct method of teaching, that the expert teacher could demonstrate this method, and that the student could adopt the method as his own. This approach emphasized the development of special skills and techniques. A later approach to teacher education assumed that one could become a teacher by learning the basic principles of teaching and applying them in future situations. This approach emphasized the study of abstract generalizations and theory.

Both approaches failed to recognize the dynamic complexity of the teaching-learning process. Both approaches failed to recognize that learning and doing are necessarily parts of a single act. One reason modern programs of teacher education differ from earlier programs is that they are based on a different conception of learning. The modern conception of learning as problem solving has far-reaching implications for both the goals of teacher education and the methods of teacher education.

Modern teacher education in no way suggests that all one needs to do to understand children is to follow them around for six months. What it does insist upon is that in order to be able to work effectively with children the teacher must not only know what has been learned about their nature and behavior—that is, theory, but he must also be able to recognize the significance of those generalizations in the behavior of children and be able to take appropriate action. A teacher may know that extreme frustration in a child may lead to aggression but unless he is able to diagnose the symptoms of frustration or recognize aggression for what it is, his theoretical foundation is of no value.

Another difficulty in moving directly from abstract principles to action arises from the fact that all generalizations are valid only when certain conditions prevail. This is especially important because teaching involves the complex relationships of human life in which no two situations are identical. What must be remembered about all principles and theories—about the experiences of others—is that they are tentative and relative and that they represent starting points for personal experience.

The leaders in the field of direct experience recognize the need for a variety of techniques in the education of teachers. It is agreed that teachers need to be well-versed in the organized subject matter of the various disciplines in which they expect to teach, and that they also need an understanding of the society in which they live, the ways in which learners learn, and the techniques and methods of teaching. There is an increasing belief that teachers need special preparation in logic—in the way facts, inferences, and conclusions are interrelated. Instead of supplanting any of these elements, the professional laboratory experience approach makes them essential components of the process of educating the student.

While the intelligent direction of behavior is the goal of education, it is important to realize that beliefs and values are not necessarily the results only of thinking. Lewin warns that values and beliefs are acquired from the culture. He suggests that the individual accepts new values and beliefs by accepting membership in a group which holds those values.[6] Student teaching places the student in a professional group with which he is able to identify himself. The degree to which he becomes actively involved in the problems of the school is a factor of great importance in bringing about changes in his values and attitudes as well as his understanding.

This points up the importance of selecting only the best possible schools as centers for student teaching. The best possible schools may not always be the ones with the best reputations. The best schools are those in which a well-qualified faculty is actively engaged in studying the problems of education and developing a school program to meet the needs of society and youth, and in which the opportunity to share in the preparation of a teacher is welcomed by staff, by pupils, and by patrons.

Undoubtedly one of the chief values of full-time, supervised teaching is the all-inclusive atmosphere which characterizes the relationship between the student and the co-operating teacher. If it is realized that education is not only an intellectual process but also comes about as a result of the total impact of the culture on the individual, the superiority of the full-time teaching program, in which the student is initiated into the particular sub-culture which the school constitutes, is apparent.

Those responsible for the education of teachers must provide, in addition to knowledge, understanding, and a modicum of skill, opportunity for the student to test his understanding of theory in a problem situation. He needs to have experiences in clarifying goals, planning, acting, and evaluating. This rationale, if followed, will result in professional laboratory experience at its best.

Criteria of a High Quality Professional Laboratory Experience

A high quality professional laboratory experience must meet the following criteria: the experience must be challenging and satisfying; it must provide for involvement, for guidance, and for intellectualization.

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[6] Lewin, Burt, *Resolving Social Conflicts*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1948, p. 60.

Criterion I—It Should Be Challenging

If the student is to profit from the experience he must be convinced that it offers him something of value—that it helps him achieve his purposes. It must be not only challenging and valuable but the student must see it as a problem which has meaning for him. If, as Kelley and Rasey state, man is a unit of energy seeking to spend itself, in ways which will accomplish his purposes,[7] the learning situation must be one which will call forth energy that can only be released by the person himself. Since learning is best when the learner is achieving his own purposes, the laboratory experience must be provocative and meaningful to the student. It should arouse his curiosity, strengthen initiative, and lead to action. When he sees a problem to be solved and is challenged to solve it, he is learning.

The student who freely chooses his activity not only will learn more from it but also will be much more likely to adopt the values, habits, and attitudes exhibited by others participating in the activity. Carl Rogers' emphasis on self-decision by the patient stresses the same point for the psychotherapy of the individual.

If the student sees his experience as pertinent to his professional growth, it is more likely to be challenging. If the experience increases his understanding of society and social forces, it is pertinent. If it increases his understanding of children and how they learn, it is pertinent. If it leads to skill in interpersonal relations or if it stimulates self-analysis and self-knowledge, it will contribute to his professional growth. If the experience leads to personal growth, to study, and to further experience, it is a challenging one.

Criterion II—It Should Provide for Involvement

The student must be actively involved in what is going on. Passive observation is not enough. While careful observation is an essential element in scientific experimentation it is only a part of the process. Purposeful observation is an important part of professional laboratory experiences—important for raising questions: What happened? Why did the child respond as he did? What should have been done? What would I do? The student may search the literature for answers to the second and third questions. But the only way he can find the answer to the last question is by actual participation. There is a world of difference between knowing what to do and actually doing it. Students who can glibly recite what must be included in an adequate teaching plan discover this when they have to make plans for a full week's program for thirty children. One doesn't know he can do a thing until he has done it.

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[7] Kelley, E. C., and Rasey, M. I., *Education and the Nature of Man*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952, Chapters 3 and 4.

As a person becomes actively involved in a situation he gains insight into the complex interrelationships which obtain. He also gains insight into his own strengths and weaknesses and develops a sense of responsibility for the consequences of his action.

Here, success or failure depends not upon ability to generalize or verbalize central principles but upon ability to perform. The student's role must commit him to responsible action. He must feel that what he does makes a difference.

Only when the student becomes personally identified with an activity is he able to feel the burden of responsibility and make his maximum contribution. Making his contribution results in growth.

Criterion III—It Should Provide for Guidance and Assistance

The student should be guided by someone who is willing to share sympathetically the understanding his experience has given him. He should bring to the learner not only his experience but also the experiences and insights of others as they have been incorporated in pertinent theory. The mature person has a moral obligation to share his experiences with the immature.

Experiences may actually educate wrongly, with results disastrous for all concerned. Careful preparation and supervision must be available to guarantee that no irreparable harm is done to the future teacher or to the children. The extent of the guidance will depend upon the complexity of the situation and the needs of the student. Too close supervision can destroy the feeling of responsibility; too little help may result in the establishment of unsound patterns of behavior and unjustified generalizations or frustrations. Just as one does not begin to swim by jumping out of the boat in the middle of the lake, neither does he become an accomplished swimmer without getting in over his head.

A student needs to be encouraged to discover facts for himself. An individual will believe in facts he himself has discovered in the same way he believes in himself. The supervisor in the field, or the co-operating teacher, as a fellow-worker with the student, is in an ideal situation to help the inexperienced student discover himself.

Two types of problems are involved in supervision: first, how much help can a student profit from and, second, how much help can be provided. From the psychological point of view students could probably profit from more extensive supervision. In many instances administrative considerations, chiefly the limitations of staff personnel and time, confine the supervision provided by the college to an introductory analysis of the experience, two or three brief visits while the student is in action, and a concluding analysis and evaluation. If the student knows that he may obtain help when needed, most of the dangers are eliminated. Intelligent assignment and careful pre-planning are important aspects of guidance. The college only supplements the guidance and assistance provided locally.

One condition must obtain if satisfactory relations between student and staff are to prevail. The student must feel that someone is interested in his progress and in his unique problems. An able supervisor will discover ways of building this kind of relationship with the students for whom he is responsible. The weekly seminar where students share their experiences is an efficient tool for group guidance.

The best guidance is usually that which is least obvious. Lao-Tse, more than five hundred years before Christ, made such an observation: "A leader is best when people barely know that he exists, not so good when people obey and acclaim him, worst when they despise him. 'Fail to honor people, they fail to honor you.' But of a good leader, who talks little, when his work is done, his aim fulfilled, they will all say, 'We did this ourselves.' " [8]

Criterion IV—It Should Provide for Intellectualization

The introduction of this chapter emphasized the central role thinking must play if an experience is to be educative. Professional laboratory experiences are not included in the teacher-education program merely for the sake of experience. Rather they are provided for their contribution to the preparation of a teacher—to make it possible for the teacher to make intelligent judgments and to take appropriate action in unfamiliar situations.

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[8] *The Way of Life According to Laotsu,* An American Version, by Witter Bynner. New York: The John Day Company, 1944, 5th impression, Chapter 17, pp. 34–35.

Unless a person analyzes his experience, identifies central principles, and sees relationships among the various elements in the situation, he is failing to intellectualize his experience and may be unable to apply what he has learned in new situations. It is important for the experiencer to ask himself, "Why did this happen? Under what conditions is it likely to happen again? Is this consistent with the experiences of others?" From the answers to such questions the student is able to formulate some working principles which should facilitate the solution of problems he will face in the future.

One important aspect of intellectualization, too often neglected, is the squaring of action and principle with the professed values. A person may be so habituated to behaving in a certain way that he is unaware that his behavior is inconsistent with what he believes is right. This squaring of action with principle must not be slighted if the democratic way of life is to be continued.

While it is impossible to separate thought and action, it has been shown that conscious attention to the processes of thinking improves the quality of both thought and action. Prior to engaging in a laboratory experience the student should acquaint himself with what is already known in this area—he should study the pertinent theory. During the participation he should constantly equate his experiences with this theory, and in the final stages of the experience he should formulate his own theory, checking its consistency with the best accepted theory of the day.

This is perhaps the most difficult criterion to achieve. It requires a high degree of individualization of instruction. For many students who have been accustomed to accept mere verbalizations it will represent a relatively new approach to education. Students need patient encouragement as they learn to generalize from experience, but they also need rigorous discipline in logic and in scientific thinking. They need the same kind of help in appraising their actions—learning to act consistently with the principles which they profess.

There seems to be no way to truly learn theory apart from action. The army slogan is apropos: "If the teacher has taught, the student can perform." It is important to keep in mind the interaction between theory and practice. Each makes the other possible. It is, so to speak, a two-way street in which theory is proven in practice and practice takes on meaning as theory.

Any program of direct experiences which fails to include intellectualization tends to develop persons who act according to *pattern* rather than *principle*. In the past, far too often student teaching consisted in students learning to mime all the actions of a master teacher. Where teachers have been asked to evaluate their preparation they tend to complain that it has been too theoretical; on the other hand they commend the direct experiences included in the program. Perhaps the error has been in the manner in which theory has been taught. Theory will come to life and contribute to education when it becomes a part of the actual life-experience of the learner.

Criterion V—It Should Be Satisfying

The quality of the experience depends upon, first, its immediate agreeableness or disagreeableness and, second, its influence upon later experience. The quality of the human relationships which obtain is a major factor. The student who is made to feel that he is wanted and appreciated will learn much from his experience. Supervisors need consciously to provide an atmosphere which will build security and confidence in students.

The student should come to value his experiences because he has gained personal satisfaction from an awareness of his growth as well as professional insight. The student needs to be able to see for himself the results of his work. He needs to experience success.

The experiences should constitute a unified sequence in which a student has time to appraise the situation, work in it, and gain some feeling of success. There is little reason for prolonging it beyond the point where the meanings are apparent. Its purpose is to develop understandings, insights, and a modicum of skill. The development of expert techniques and skills can wait.

Even a failure may provide some satisfactions if it leads to the realization of one's limitations and to steps to correct them. The most satisfying experiences are those in which a student is able to recognize education in process; where he is able to observe changes in understanding and behavior conditioned by the learning situation in which he has played some significant role.

When a program of experiences is being planned for the prospective teacher, a multitude of activities can be identified. In choosing from among these the five criteria should be helpful. The same criteria are helpful in evaluating any completed experience.

Current Status of Professional Laboratory Experiences

As suggested in the preceding section, until recently professional laboratory experiences were largely limited to observation and student teaching. Student teaching was conceived as the period in which a student put to practice what he had already learned. It was the culminating step and primarily a testing period. Today professional laboratory experiences and especially student teaching are viewed as basic learning activities—the process through which the student learns about children's behavior, the way learning occurs, his own ways of working with people, and the art of guiding learning experiences. When student teaching is viewed as an exciting adventure in learning it is easy to understand why Rucker discovered that "enrichment in the program of student teaching or the other laboratory activities of the professional curriculum has, in fact, done more to focus attention on the problem of reorganization in the professional sequence than any other single factor in the past twenty years." [9]

Two recent analyses of teaching-learning theory indicate that the violent controversies of an earlier time are giving way to a near consensus that learning and teaching are best characterized by the phrases: "directing learning activities" or "guiding pupil experiencing." [10] The application of this theory to the program of teacher education would lead to an increased emphasis upon direct experience with boys and girls and the schools. This is exactly what has happened.

Leadership Provided by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

There is little doubt that the work of a special committee appointed in 1945 by the Committee of Standards and Surveys of the American Association of Teachers Colleges to examine the role of student teaching played an important role in the trend which increased the relative importance of direct experience in the education of teachers. Whether this committee was reflecting a movement already started or whether it initiated the movement is irrelevant. The special committee immediately enlarged the scope of its inquiry to include not only student teaching but all direct experiences in pre-service teacher education. The study led to the publication of

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[9] Rucker, W. Ray, "Trends in Student Teaching 1932–1952," *Journal of Teacher Education,* 4:261, December, 1953. Based on his doctoral dissertation of the same title, Harvard University, 1952.

[10] Monroe, W. S., *Teaching-Learning Theory and Teacher Education 1890–1950.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1952; Urbana National Society for the Study of Education, *Learning and Instruction,* Forty-Ninth Yearbook. Chicago, Illinois: The Society, 1950.

School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education[11] and the official adoption of the recommendations of the committee as Standard VI, "Governing Professional Laboratory Experiences," as one part of the Evaluation Schedule of the AACTE.

In 1949, the AACTE, with the co-operation of the Association for Student Teaching, held eight workshops in different parts of the United States for the primary purpose of stimulating study of, and experimentation with, direct experiences as a means of improving the education of teachers.[12]

In an effort to ascertain what changes had occurred in programs of teacher education with respect to the utilization of direct experiences, Lindsey surveyed current professional literature and doctoral studies and compared reports, from colleges which prepare teachers, on file in the offices of the AACTE for the years 1948 and 1953.[13] She concluded that the evidence clearly indicates:

1. There has been a significant increase in provisions for professional laboratory experiences throughout the four years of the college program.
2. A greater number of institutions provide opportunities for prospective teachers to observe and participate in activities in the total school and in the community.
3. Provision for direct experiences made chiefly through work in educational psychology and methods courses with very limited opportunities in subject-matter courses.
4. In general students are spending more time in student teaching, both because of increased emphasis on full time student teaching and because of increase in the length of assignment to student teaching.
5. Provision for individual differences of students in student teaching is still limited, the chief provision being through adjustments in the nature of activities.
6. There is a marked increase in use of off-campus college-co-operating schools in all phases of the sequence of professional laboratory experiences.
7. The extent to which community agencies are used as facilities for laboratory experiences is far greater than indicated in the 1948 report.
8. Students engaged in professional laboratory experiences still get their guidance from laboratory school teachers and college teachers of education with little participation in this activity by subject-matter teachers.

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[11] American Association of Teachers Colleges, *School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education.* Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1948.

[12] Workshops were held at Keene, New Hampshire; Lock Haven, Penn.; Chapel Hill, N.C.; Gainesville, Florida; Bowling Green, Ohio; Warrensburg, Mo.; Moorhead, Minn.; Flagstaff, Arizona; Laramie, Wy.; Bellingham, Washington.

[13] For more complete report of this project see: Lindsey, Margaret, "Standard VI—Five Years After"—Address delivered to joint meeting of AACTE and AST, Chicago, Illinois, February, 1953. Seventh Yearbook, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1954, pp. 112–115.

An Investigation of Recent Trends in Student Teaching

Rucker found that student teaching and other laboratory activities were receiving more attention than formerly. He concluded that the present demands for functional courses in education would inevitably push student teaching, participation, and observation into the foreground in teacher education. He also identified the following trends:

1. There is a trend *away* from conventional course organizations in student teaching. This trend is taking two directions: (a) toward a full-time practicum or (b) toward a professional core or integrated block near the end of the college experience.
2. There is a trend *toward:* (a) student teaching as a full-time experience; (b) the use of more laboratory experiences in teacher education; (c) more off-campus experiences in student teaching, including community experiences in the locale where the teaching is performed; (d) increasing the time allotment given to student teaching and to the other laboratory activities of teacher education; (e) increasing the amount of academic credit awarded for student teaching; (f) the use of laboratory activities, including student teaching, as the reference point of the whole curriculum in teacher education; and (g) student teaching for a given student on more grade levels.[14]

The Intervisitation Program of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

From a preliminary analysis of the two hundred twenty-five reports and accompanying data of the AACTE intervisitation program five significant facts stand out:

First, college staffs seem to be spending more time and energy studying and experimenting with student teaching and professional laboratory experiences than with any other single phase of their programs.

Second, neither college staffs nor members of the visiting teams were satisfied with the existing programs for providing direct experiences. This dissatisfaction was much more pronounced with respect to experiences other than student teaching. In fact, there were many instances where both the college staff and the visiting team expressed considerable confidence in their student teaching program but were critical of the lack of direct experiences prior to and following student teaching.

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[14] Rucker, Winfred R., "Trends in Student Teaching 1932–1952." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, 1952.

Third, there is almost complete agreement among the two hundred twenty-five visiting teams and the college staffs regarding the value of direct experience. These quotations are typical of many recommendations made by the visiting committee:

> "Teachers of education courses, methods courses, and content courses need to explore further the possibilities of providing first-hand contacts with children as a means of deepening insights and adding vitality to its professional and academic courses for teachers."
>
> "We recommend that the staff study cooperatively the potentialities and possibilities in extending services in the total teacher education program especially in the area of observation and participation."

Fourth, while there are wide variations in the different programs of student teaching, a central body of principles and practices seems to be developing and gaining acceptance as a basic element in teacher education. On the other hand, no such central body of principles or practices pertaining to other types of professional laboratory experiences is yet apparent. Activity in this area is characterized by a trial-and-error type of experimentation, as much as by carefully considered plans. As will be shown later in this chapter those professional laboratory experiences which are difficult to institutionalize, and which depend upon the initiative of an already overloaded college teacher, tend to disappear after the original excitement dies down. In most colleges whether or not individual students have opportunities for professional laboratory experiences other than student teaching is largely a matter of student initiative or that of the particular instructor.

Fifth, through participation in the program of professional laboratory experiences the teaching profession is beginning to assume responsibility for the preparation of teachers. The college no longer has sole jurisdiction. Teachers, administrators, and supervisors in the schools of the nation are working directly with college students as they learn to be teachers. This constitutes a significant step forward in making teaching a true profession.

A Description of a Typical Forward-Looking Program of Professional Laboratory Experience

The staff of the college is committed to the value of direct experience in education. In the freshman and sophomore years the basic courses which provide understanding of the social and psychological foundations of society use the student's home community and the college community as a laboratory. The value of direct experiences is stressed, the opportunities for such experiences on campus and in the community are described, and students are urged to participate. Participation is largely voluntary, dependent upon the initiative and ambition of the individual student. The director of professional laboratory experiences, the heads of the departments, and the student personnel office work together to help students make the contacts and stand ready to help if help is needed.

In connection with the human development course the student begins a systematic, first-hand study of children in various community agencies. He observes individuals and groups, makes case studies, visits places of recreation, records viewpoints and conversations of children and youth. On-the-scene observations strengthen and reinforce the scientific understandings he gains of growth and development patterns and constantly provide concrete information to mold his judgments and his thinking.

In the communications courses on campus, stress is laid on the development of personal skills in speaking before groups, in group discussions, and in recognizing the dynamics of group process. In physical education extra points are earned for the coveted Women's or Men's Athletic Association letter in such activities as Scouting, summer club counseling, recreation direction, park and club leaderships, boys' and girls' club activities, and service club participation. Art and music departments provide special Saturday hours for pupils of elementary and high-school age to use the college facilities. The students of those departments gain valuable laboratory experiences in the directing of these special clubs. Industrial arts, home economics, and agriculture students provide the leadership for the community hobby clubs and the special FHA and FFA groups of children and youth. Since these organizations are of national scope the experiences are rich not only in working with the groups themselves but in the understanding of the attendant national relationships. The social studies and economics departments provide opportunities for students to observe adult activities in city, county, and state governmental activities by visiting open meetings where policies are being developed and discussed.

Planned visits and purposeful observation provide first-hand knowledge of contrasting types of communities and educational programs. As the student participates in group work with children in the public schools or the campus school and in non-school recreational and educational organizations, he gains increased perception of his own behavior and a growing skill in interpersonal relationships. Conferences and evaluation reports serve to stimulate thinking about his experiences and his professional growth. Reports of these experiences become a part of the student's personal record and serve as guides for placement in supervised teaching.

For elementary teachers, both the basic and specialized professional education of the third year are provided by the Junior Practicum. The Practicum is the total year's program, a unified core combining professional courses, elementary subject-matter courses, and field experiences. All the college courses are focused on professional competence, not in the abstract but in an actual school situation in one of the Practicum Centers. The student has been introduced to this school during his sophomore year. He visits it frequently during the first fourteen weeks of his junior year while he is spending most of his time on campus in intensive study of educational psychology, the elementary-school curriculum, and problems of teaching. During the next eight weeks he spends four days a week at the school and one day a week on campus for group and individual conferences. While in the school he makes careful studies of teaching problems. He observes experienced teachers. He participates and assists in many school activities and does some teaching. The last fourteen weeks of the year approximate the pattern of the first fourteen. His close contact with the college provides the necessary guidance and ample opportunity for generalizing from his experience.

For elementary students, the senior year provides for eight weeks of full-time, off-campus, supervised teaching differing from that of the junior year in the increased amount of individual responsibility assumed and the degree of proficiency required.

Students preparing to teach on the secondary level continue during the junior year the same type of voluntary program they have followed during their freshman and sophomore years. The senior year provides the major share of professional education for secondary teachers. All students participate in the September Field Experience in which they spend from two to three weeks in a public school before college opens in the fall. These activities consist in observing and taking part in the activities of the school, with purposeful analysis and objective examination of all facets of the teaching situation to be met in the coming student-teaching period.

The students then return to campus for a period of seven weeks for a more intensive study of the general problems of teaching with specific and individual focus on their own particular situations. The eighth week they report back to the co-operating public school for full-time supervised teaching. It is during these eight weeks, under the supervision of the co-operating teacher, that the student, for the first time, has the feeling that "this is *my* class; I am responsible for its growth." The director and supervisors from the college keep in close contact with the experience, visiting each student at least three times during the teaching period.

The final week of the semester is devoted to campus seminars and individual conferences. Here the individual student receives help in analyzing his experiences, in formulating some functional principles of teaching, and in evaluating strengths and weaknesses. Here he makes explicit his philosophy of education.

While this description necessarily suffers from compression it presents evidence that the program of professional laboratory experiences does satisfy in good measure the criteria of a high quality laboratory experience.

The experiences are made *challenging* as the student becomes sensitive to the problems. As the student, through repeated contacts, becomes acquainted with the school and the children his curiosity is aroused and his interest increases. Careful preparation and analysis help the student to identify and define the problem.

The student becomes actively *involved* in responsibility at many levels in both community activities and in the school. Here again the repeated contacts enable him gradually to accept added responsibility. As he comes to know the staff and pupils he is in turn accepted by them as a co-worker. His individual contribution to the professional situation actually becomes important as co-operating teachers and social workers learn to use the talents of the student.

The great strength of the program is the *guidance and assistance* provided. Almost the whole college staff is involved in preparing the student for some part of his direct experiences. The college campus and the public school during the Junior Practicum take on the aspects of a single institution, ministering in different ways to the emerging needs of a teacher.

The opportunities for intellectualization through relating theory and practice seem almost ideal in the junior year. Even the reports required during the freshman and sophomore years reflect a point of view which recognizes that direct experience is not truly educative unless it is accompanied by careful evaluation, analysis, and generalization.

The fact that the student retains contact with one school during the whole junior year provides him the opportunity to recognize his accomplishments and thereby contributes to his *satisfaction*. The specific suggestions of the staff, the practical handbook that may have been provided, and the frequent conferences make it possible for him to gain confidence and to sense his growth. Even by the end of the Junior Practicum the student begins to feel that he has actually accomplished something. He has not only established a working relationship with others but has come to understand himself. For student and staff the education of a teacher is viewed as an exciting experience in living.

Ventures in Professional Laboratory Experiences

It is not the province of this book to attempt a comprehensive analysis of the thousands of different programs providing direct experiences.[15] The following descriptions represent a careful selection of a few promising practices which may serve as a starting point for building into the fabric of teacher education a new body of principles and practices.

Student Teaching in a Professional Block

Many colleges have been experimenting with a block program, sometimes called the professional semester or quarter, which combines student teaching with various education courses.[16] The professional quarter does not provide all the direct experience of the college program. Many opportunities for professional laboratory experiences should be available at all levels of teacher preparation.

At a liberal arts college, students report to their teaching assignments when public school opens in the fall and remain there observing and participating until the college opens two or three weeks later. For the next four and one-half weeks students go to the public schools for the first two hours of the day and then report to the campus for four hours of classwork, dividing their time between two courses, one which provides a general introduction to secondary education and one which is devoted to methods of teaching in the high school. For the next two weeks they report back to the public schools in the morning and return to the campus for a short course concerned with teaching aids in the classroom. They then return to the public schools for the full day for the remaining nine weeks of the semester.

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[15] For a detailed description of three different programs of professional laboratory practices see McGeoch, Dorothy M., *Direct Experiences in Teacher Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953; and American Association of Teachers Colleges, *School and Community Laboratory Experiences in Teacher Education*. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1948.

[16] Among those schools having a block program are the University of Miami, University of Louisville, Indiana University, Indiana State Teachers College, and Marshall College.

A teachers college which operates on the quarter system has a similar block program. Students after a preliminary visit to their assigned schools spend the first three weeks of the quarter on campus, dividing their day between a seminar in secondary teaching and a special methods course. They then report to their schools where they spend the full day for a period of eight weeks engaging in all the normal activities of a teacher. The final week of the quarter is spent on campus in the seminar and special methods courses.

At one university the professional semester includes the heart of the undergraduate program in education. It is co-operatively planned by the full faculty who also share in its administration. The block program for secondary teachers combines the course in methods and one in secondary education and guidance with student teaching. The first half of the semester is spent on campus, the last half in the public schools of the state except for a three-day evaluation conference which completes the professional semester.

The methods course combining general and special methods meets two hours daily and provides in addition two hours for laboratory work. The methods courses are taught by the supervisors who are assigned to a certain geographical region of the state to work with all students placed in that area. The course in secondary education meets for two hours a day, three times a week, and includes an additional four-hour period per week for laboratory work. Assignment to sections of the methods course is based on the teaching field.

The total facilities of the Laboratory School are available for use during the laboratory periods. Many of the students gain some classroom experience before they leave campus. All of them spend some time in the Laboratory School observing or working on projects related to the methods course.

Students visit their teaching post early in the semester which makes possible specific planning while they are still on the campus. During the first eight weeks on campus the regional supervisors hold several meetings with the students they will be supervising in order to become acquainted with them and to apprise them of the opportunities and problems they will face in their assigned schools. During the eight-week teaching period the supervisor makes three visits of as much as one half-day each with each student.

When the students return to campus for the three-day conference they are primarily concerned with discussing the answers they have developed to certain questions which they formulated before they left campus.

Full-time teaching—the heart of the block program.—The block program always includes a period of weeks in which the student is freed of other obligations to spend the full day in a school. This has been the chief goal of the block program. Full time in the school recommends itself for several reasons. In the modern school the teacher is responsible for more than teaching the class. As he shares in co-operative administration he not only participates in committee meetings but also accepts responsibility for such administrative duties as lunchroom and playground supervision and special interest activities of children. Especially on the high-school level, teachers have responsibilities for extra-curricular activities many of which extend into the late afternoon or evening. During the school day teachers supervise study halls, work with records, confer with students, and prepare materials for their classes. Only full-time supervised teaching permits students to participate in all these duties of the teacher. Opportunities for conferences between student and supervising teacher are also available with the full-day assignment.

Even within the classroom the activities vary throughout the day —the student who always reported to the third grade at ten o'clock never had a chance to witness the way in which the teacher expertly pulled the thirty individual children into a single learning group. Neither did the student see the necessary variations in the rhythm of the school day—the periods of close attention, relaxation, rest, co-operative activity, individual study, and planning.

The fusion of theory and practice.—In addition to providing realistic experience in teaching, the proponents of the block program believe it can infuse life into the academic courses. Education courses in methods of teaching have been criticized for lack of relevance and challenge. It is thought that they become vital when they are presented in a context of immediate need. When the student realizes that he soon will be using the unit plan he is constructing, he is strongly motivated to apply himself to the work. When he understands that he will be responsible for controlling a group of twenty-five teenagers, he is anxious to learn what to expect from them.

Unless the courses integrated in the block program are organized around the total professional problems of the student teacher, it is unlikely that they offer more than the conventional course. However, when the special methods course or the psychology course is presented with the forthcoming teaching problems in mind, it is more likely to meet the felt needs of the student. As the student is searching for specific ways of doing the job of teaching he can be guided into understanding of the basic thinking about the learning-teaching theory and the functions of the schools in a democracy.

Incorporating a college course into the block, be it a course in methods, psychology, or one in the academic fields, requires rethinking not only of the organization of the course but also of its purposes. Some instructors who hope to achieve the same purposes they did in the course which met all semester, three hours a week, are dissatisfied with the accomplishments of the class meeting two hours a day for eight weeks. But in the block program it is necessary to think of the growth of the student as a whole. The college courses do not end when the student leaves campus. They continue to contribute to the student's growth at the school. As the student returns to his campus courses the last week of the semester the college instructor who has visited him during his teaching is able to pull together the direct experience and the theory which he introduced at the beginning of the semester.

Focusing all energies on the professional problem.—The block program permits the student to give his undivided attention to developing his professional competence. While he meets with several instructors on campus the central purpose of all these courses is preparation for the immediate task at hand. The block program lends itself to the utilization of such services as the curriculum library, audio-visual department, speech clinic, and personnel services. The organizing principle is a specific job to be done, rather than a series of courses. Those programs which include an early contact with the teaching situation, a period of intensive study on campus, a period of full-time teaching, and, finally, a return to campus closely parallel the logical steps in problem solving: the problem is identified, relevant data are examined and plans made, the plans are applied in solution of the problem and their effectiveness is evaluated. The experience has unity. Students who have other college classes to prepare for or college activities to manage find it difficult to expend the extra time and energy which make the teaching experience contribute so richly to professional growth.

Co-operation between the public schools and the college and within the college.—The success or failure of the block program depends largely upon the effectiveness of the relationships which prevail between the many different persons who share in the professional preparation of the teacher-to-be. The co-operating teacher in the public school, the principal, and in fact the pupils in the schools contribute as directly to the student's education as do the teachers in the college. The interchange of ideas, the discussion of educational problems, and the establishment of new goals for teacher education which accompany this joint activity serve to reshape the college curriculum as well as that of the public school.

Similarly as various instructors and different departments are involved in reorganizing their contribution to the professional semester, the block program, they are forced to meet together not only to plan the schedule but also to agree upon purposes. This type of co-operation among the various members of the college staff is one of the crying needs in higher education. Several members of a university staff who have developed a block program have stated that the common understanding of the problems of teacher education which the staff achieved would justify the program even if no other value came from it.

As the block program aims at professional competence it frequently brings to light inadequacies which made the adjustments necessary. The faculty members who meet together to inaugurate the block can serve as a continuing agency for further modifications of the curriculum. Staff members from the subject-matter fields are included. The unnecessary duplications, the omissions, the "dead wood," and the vital elements of the teaching education program may be brought to light and examined as the experimental block is evaluated.

Problems posed by the block program.—The three major problems raised by a block program are: first, the problem of scheduling and administering a program in which the student is away from the campus for as long as half a semester; second, the problem of compressing into a single semester a large proportion of the professional work; third, the problem of providing adequate supervision of the student when he is away from the college.

While the administrative difficulties involved in setting up a block program are formidable they are not insurmountable. This is not to minimize the weight of tradition nor the obstacle of inertia. As soon as a staff discovers there is nothing sacred about the three-hour-per-week class the greatest hurdle is past. It takes time to work out the schedule and more time for staff and students to come to realize that flexibility is desirable. Imagination can suggest ways in which the legal requirements and standards of accrediting agencies can be met in a block program.

The evidence is not clear as to whether intensive application over a short period of time provides as much growth as more diffused application over a long period of time. While research is needed to help answer this question, the advocates of the block program maintain that one does not have to answer that question. They hold that even if an intensive program suffers because of the limited maturation, it benefits from the concentration of purpose. It may be true that certain types of courses are poorly adapted to the block program. Those which require the development of complicated skills such as applied music, physical education skills, and the like are thought to be taught best over a long period of time. There is no doubt that a course which meets two hours daily for four weeks will produce different results from one which meets hourly four days a week for twelve weeks. It will also require a different approach to teaching-learning. But the evidence as to which is superior is not conclusive.

A planned block program does not mean that the student spends only the first weeks in study. His study continues the full semester. The so-called theory classes need not end when the student reports to his school. The textbooks, reference materials, and guides can be used while at the school, not only to improve his experience while there but also to increase his understanding of the profession.

The problem of providing adequate supervision is met in two ways: first, by making it possible for various members of the college staff to spend time with the student in the field; and, second, by enlisting the services of superior teachers in the public schools. The student is not sent out on his own. All of his activities in the field are under the close supervision of an experienced and specially qualified teacher. Close co-operation between the staffs of the college and the public schools cannot only help the student adequately meet the challenges of each day but can also help him come to understand the basic theory—the funded experience of others.

Many colleges supplement their regular visits with weekly seminars in the field. These seminars, which are usually held after school or on a Saturday, bring together all student teachers in a locality to share their experiences, ask questions, and receive suggestions. Here the college instructor has an excellent opportunity to increase the student's understanding of basic educational theory as it relates to actual practice in the schools. Here, too, is the unifying thread which pulls together the introductory theory, the actual experience, and the final evaluation.

The Community as a Laboratory

One of the promising trends in teacher education is the greater use of the community as a professional laboratory. This recognizes that the really effective teacher must be first of all an effective citizen in a community. It also recognizes that knowledge of the child requires a knowledge of the community in which he receives his status as a person. These important knowledges and skills can be more effectively learned by direct participation in a community which approximates the one in which the teacher will live and work. Just as good education escapes the boundaries of the classroom and the textbook, so good teacher education seeks intelligent recourse to the community at large.

Recognition of the community as an important laboratory for the education of teachers is evidenced by the significant increase in teacher-education institutions reporting such programs in 1953 over those reporting like programs in 1948.[17] According to the 1948 report only a very limited number of schools made any provision at all for such experiences, while 74 per cent of the institutions reporting in 1953 made some use of community agencies in teacher education. While a trend has developed toward the greater use of the community as a laboratory for teacher education, those programs under way are generally rather limited in scope. Reports of visiting committees reveal no program which continuously and effectively makes use of the community throughout the professional educational sequence, and in the academic courses such use is still almost completely lacking.

Examples of the use of the community as a laboratory.—One of the more comprehensive programs of community participation and study is conducted by a midwestern university. There a study of the community along with limited participation in several community agencies is required of all students who are preparing to teach in two of the four courses in the professional education sequence. Agencies contacted include the Girl and Boy Scouts, the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, the neighborhood centers, community churches, nursery schools, recreational programs, and hospitals. In some cases, added opportunities for community participation are sought in the home community of the student. A laboratory handbook for prospective teachers has been prepared which offers a guide for choosing an activity and for studying and evaluating the experience. A Coordinator of Laboratory Activities is responsible for counseling the student in selecting an activity, for arranging interviews, and for making other necessary contacts with the agencies concerned. The responsibility for supervision of the experience is shared by the student's college instructor, the agency personnel, and a panel of graduate students in guidance and personnel work.

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[17] Lindsey, *op. cit.*, p. 118.

A western college requires that all sophomores take a course in community life and problems which includes direct participation in local community activities along with the theoretical study, analysis, and interpretation of community life. The direct experience in community life is provided through the Community Activities Program jointly sponsored by the college, the city, and the public schools. A full-time, trained city director, also a member of the college staff, manages the community activities program and supervises the student participation in it. The student is encouraged to attend public meetings and to engage in independent or group study of local life. In the seven years of the program scores of useful surveys of various phases of community life have been made by the classes. Each student participates in terms of his special need, interest, or competency.

In the program of an eastern state teachers college emphasis is placed on intensive study of a community. Groups of ten to twenty-five students live in a community, each student investigating some aspect of community life and sharing the information gained with other students in frequent pooling sessions. This experience ordinarily precedes or follows the nine weeks of off-campus student teaching.

Three levels of community experiences.—An analysis of typical programs reveals three different concepts as to the function of the community as a laboratory. The first and most common is the use of certain kinds of community agencies, usually those serving children, as extended laboratories for observing and studying child behavior. This assumes that teachers-in-preparation will better understand child motivation by observing and working with children in the free atmosphere of such voluntary agencies as the Boy Scouts and the Y.M.C.A. The activity at this level is usually limited to serving as an assistant leader in a child welfare organization of some kind. Rarely is the effort made to interpret this experience in other than practical terms of what works and what doesn't work with children.

A second and more comprehensive level of participation in the community is reached when the effort is made to relate individual child behavior to the patterned system of status and roles which operates in the culture of his community. Here the focus is on the community itself and the groups which make up the community. The question is raised as to how a community functions and how it affects and is affected by the individuals who make up the community. The student activity at this level usually takes the form of case studies explaining the behavior of a particular child or of groups of children in terms of the forces operating in the community. Such case studies may be based upon course work designed to give initial insight into community structure and to give the student tools for working with community problems.

A third level of community participation aims not at the study of child behavior nor at the study of the community but at the development of the teacher as a more vital, mature, and effective citizen in the community. It is based on the assumption that insight into community relationships and skill in working effectively in a community are best learned through active participation thoughtfully interpreted and generalized. The student activity at this level usually consists of formal study in campus classes of community organization, coupled with observation of, and direct experience in, a wide variety of community activities related to the economic, political, and social life of the community rather than to only the child-serving agencies. Such study frequently involves living for a period in a community while studying and participating in the many aspects of community life. At this highest level, interest in child growth and development is still considered important but the main purpose is the encouragement of continuous growth of the teacher as an individual toward more effective citizenship.

Goals of community experience.—Mere experience is not the purpose of community participation. An important goal is to help the student to intellectualize his experience and to arrive at defensible generalizations about community life. The community is a most complex organism. It does not easily reveal its lessons even to those who experience first hand the life of the community. The naive and poorly informed may easily be misled and miseducated through participation in community activities. If experience is to be of high quality, it must be carefully safeguarded from the danger of the easy generalization. One of these safeguards is a systematic and organized study of how communities function and how individuals are related to community life. This study should include techniques of community observation and analysis.

There must be an opportunity to get a comprehensive view of the community, to experience all of the facets of community life, to understand the total structure of community organization. There must be an opportunity to see the relation of group to community and group to group within the community over a considerable period of time so process and development become more evident. To some extent, this experience may be supplied through the historical treatment of community institutions and problems. There must be the continuous opportunity to check interpretations and conclusions with those of other students and with those of scholars in the field.

Further goals of community experience are to develop in the student an increasing sense of social responsibility and the skills needed for effective living in a community. If these goals are to be achieved, the participation in community life must be real. The student must feel that his contribution counts, that he is truly accepted as a community member. It is difficult to avoid an artificial kind of participation of students in community affairs, especially if the ratio of students to community population is high.

The basic approach to this goal is that of involving both student and community leaders in co-operative planning. The ideal is to secure student-community joint effort in identifying the problem, gathering relevant facts, promulgating and carrying out a program of action aimed at the solution of a recognized problem in the community. Both the members of the community and the student must understand the purposes to be achieved and the respective roles to be played. Without understanding on the part of the community it may remain aloof from or be hostile to the student "interloper."

Another approach to this goal is that of utilizing more fully the past, present, and future experience of the student in his home community. Here the aura of unrealness could be more easily avoided and the necessary sense of belonging more easily maintained. The problem here is to help the student to see the real significance of experiences in the home community away from the college campus. At least three safeguards are required in such a program. First, the student should be provided in campus courses with the tools and the insight needed for community study. Second, the student should be guided in his planning to the end that participation would be sufficiently broad in scope and directed toward recognized purposes. Third, opportunity for interpreting experience and for arriving at defensible generalizations must be given. Approached along these lines the further utilization of experience in the home community promises much for enriching the program of teacher education.

Still another way to make community experience real is the fuller utilization of campus life as a laboratory for community study. The potential for involvement is obvious. The problem is that of providing the needed insights into the culture of the university community so that the true significance of experience in that culture may be understood, and valid generalizations arrived at. This is not likely to happen by chance. Preparation and purposeful planning are required. Campus life should be recognized in the curriculum as an object of study; guidance of student activity should be afforded, and evaluative follow-up of experiences should be provided. This area is worthy of considerable attention in a comprehensive program of community experience.

Suggestions for building a program which utilizes the community as a laboratory.—A start toward a program which utilizes the community as a laboratory is made whenever any individual faculty member or group in the college is made aware of the usefulness of this resource and begins to seek ways of introducing more direct experience into the college program. Such isolated efforts are of course to be encouraged. But it will soon become apparent that planning of a more all-inclusive nature is necessary. Direct experience in the community necessarily affects and is affected by all parts of the college program, and certainly the program in general education is affected quite as much as that in the professional sequence. It may involve co-ordination of effort at several levels of college work as well as co-ordination of effort between the college community and the greater community outside the college. A first requirement, therefore, for a really effective program of community utilization would lie in planning at the level of departments, at the all-college level, and at the college-community level. By such planning, good public relations between the college and community may be preserved and strengthened, duplication of effort may be reduced and the over-all goals of the program heightened, mutually useful cross references between different parts of the program may be utilized and developed, and responsibility for developing the program in all its parts may be fixed.

Important responsibility for the developing of initial insights and skills in systematic community study might be lodged in the program of general education. The need to understand how communities function and the need to develop sensitivity to and skill at effective community living are not needs peculiar to those who are preparing to teach. The general education program suitable for prospective teachers may well have equally desirable values for students with other objectives.

As the program grows, the college faculty must necessarily take a more prominent and responsible part in the on-going affairs of the community. Utilization of community resources in the sense indicated does not stop with theoretical consideration of communities but involves active participation in community life. This cannot be purely experimental in nature but must carry with it social responsibility for community action programs. Ways must be devised whereby the faculty and student body may hold recognized status in community affairs.

Further, the college must accept the responsibility for seeing that the student is well prepared to engage in the community activity. He should bring some initial insight into how a community works. He should be familiar with some of the tools for studying a community. He should, above all, be anxious to learn to work with others on common problems. It is the responsibility of the college to prepare students to profit from their experience and at the same time make a contribution to the community. On the other hand, the college must see that the students are not merely exploited by the community to carry on without cost a program which the community cannot bring itself to support.

Many college programs of community utilization may become so extensive as to require the services of a well-qualified person whose major efforts and interests would be in this area. Such a person could serve to co-ordinate the all-university effort, to make contacts and maintain good working relations with community agencies, and to help students to plan and to gain access to appropriate community experiences. The relationship between the college and the community might be further strengthened if such a leader were a joint appointee of the college and the community government.

Co-operative Notebooks, Diaries, and Logs

One of the most difficult criteria to achieve is that of providing for intellectualization. Sometimes energy has been exhausted in setting up programs of experiences, and the provision for any thinking, generalizing, and evaluating has been neglected. It has been shown that definite provisions for critical thinking must be made if anything other than superficial thinking is to occur. The student needs help in the process of reconstructing his experience, relating it to what has been learned, and organizing his conclusions into a systematic theory. The college junior who was urged to accept the sponsorship of a Youth Fellowship group may very well question the college program if no other help is forthcoming from the college. He may fail to capitalize on the learning potentials if he is not provided with assistance in thinking through his experiences. This thinking should not be confined to a final evaluative judgment but should be continuous with the experiencing.

Directors of laboratory experiences have been unusually prolific in the production of check lists, suggestion sheets, self-analysis records, and report forms. There is little evidence that these devices have served to stimulate the desired thinking. In fact, too often completing such a form has been a substitute for thinking. The traditional evaluative reports have sometimes been used as the basis for self-analysis.[18] Some of the more promising devices which have been used to encourage students to think about their experiences are described below.

The co-operative notebook, as the name suggests, is a notebook kept co-operatively by the student teacher and the supervising teacher. In one part of it the student may write down questions which perplex him. He also may record observations both descriptive and evaluative about what he sees occurring in the school. Similarly the supervising teacher may use the notebook to raise questions, report observations, and respond to the questions raised by the student teacher. A stenographer's notebook with the divided page lends itself to this purpose. The notebook passes back and forth from the student to the supervisor several times a week. The co-operative notebook commends itself as a device to encourage an exchange of ideas of more than transitory importance. Both student and supervisor are stimulated to take time to think about what they are doing. The student also has an opportunity to have his thinking checked and directed by a teacher who has shared the experiences under consideration. This written communication provides an invaluable record of the student's growth in understanding the teaching profession. It oftens serves as the point of departure for further study and experience.

The teaching diary or log is a detailed record of all significant events in the life of the student teacher. A good log or diary does much more than list where the student spent each period of the school day or what he did. It includes some of his thoughts, his frustrations, his successes, and his perplexities. Under the guidance of a sympathetic director the teaching log or diary can become a statement of a developing educational philosophy. As a continuing record of the student's activities and thinking it can suggest desirable plans and experiences. It can serve as a necessary source of data for conferences with college supervisors if such conferences are to be concerned with more than the immediate situation.

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[18] For a discussion of evaluation of student teaching see the Twenty-Eighth Yearbook, *Evaluation of Student Teaching*. Lock Haven, Pa.: Association for Student Teaching, 1949.

There are almost as many different ways of getting the student teacher to think about his experiences as there are different supervisors, but all the techniques have much in common. The first step is to get the student to see what he is doing. A simple listing of events is an important aid in reconstructing in one's mind the events, the emotional involvements, and the problems. As these events are recalled, it is possible to relate them to their counterparts in educational theory. The second step is to help him to compare his experiences with those of others. To learn that others have traveled the same road and met with similar obstacles lends encouragement. The final step is developing in the student the habit of equating his actions with his beliefs about learning, human behavior, and desirable goals in education.

Opportunities for Professional Laboratory Experiences in Campus Life

A rich field for professional experiences is provided by the regular campus activities. It has long been recognized that participation in the multitude of activities on the campus contributes greatly to the college student's education. The subsidization of student activities, either directly or indirectly, is justified on the grounds that such activities develop leadership, responsibility, citizenship, and creativity. Without in any way detracting from these goals it is possible to make these activities contribute directly to the professional growth of the student who plans to teach.

Two things would need to be done to achieve this result. First, an effective program of guidance would help the student identify his weaknesses and recognize the types of experiences which would help overcome them. Second, continuing guidance in professional growth would make explicit those aspects of the activity which contribute to the attitudes, habits, skills, and understanding of special relevance to teachers. Recent studies of perception have shown that one sees what his experiences and purposes permit him to see. His perspective determines what he will see and also what inferences he will make. For example, if a student has been alerted to discover how a group makes up its mind he will learn much from the fraternity meeting in which a heated argument occurs. Or again, a student who has been sensitized to the different types of social climate will be able to recognize examples of authoritarian, democratic, or laissez-faire organization in many campus activities.

One college charges the staff of the freshman orientation course with responsibility for capitalizing on campus opportunities for professional growth. The instructor discovers which students seriously need skill in co-operative planning and arranges for them to accept membership in campus committees and service groups. Those students whose interests have been restricted to a single field are urged to participate in activities in other fields. Students who habitually commit errors in speech are urged to solicit help from their fraternity brothers or dormitory friends. From time to time, the instructor meets with individuals or small groups to help students discover what progress they are making with respect to the professional competencies.

Any college campus offers a multitude of opportunities for growth in responsible group membership. For the purposes of the future teacher it is important that he have experience in the several roles of leadership, special service obligations, and simple group membership. First-hand experience with the difficulties encountered as a democratic group makes up its mind, organizes itself for action, carries out its plan, and then makes a judgment as to its success is excellent preparation for teaching in the modern school.

The college classroom and its activities can provide many professional experiences for the potential teacher, especially if he is actively looking for them. Conscious attention to the processes of the group increases insight as well as effectiveness. The college instructor can materially contribute to this professional experience in two ways: first, by exemplifying the best practices and, second, by calling attention to processes especially significant for teachers. In the following list of experiences suggested as means for developing competence as a teacher, nine of the ten suggestions might be easily realized in any college class: (1) sharing in classroom decisions; (2) planning with the instructor; (3) setting up goals for himself and for the group; (4) evaluating with the group what has been accomplished; (5) helping others in the class to overcome handicaps; (6) analyzing his own teacher-education curriculum;

(7) thinking about what experiences he is having in preparation as a teacher; (8) working in a situation where good human relations are predominant; (9) working in laboratory activities in which democratic values are accepted and put into practice; (10) critically evaluating old and new ideas.[19]

The campus also provides a convenient microcosm in which a perceptive student can see many of the controlling forces of a society. In this relatively simple and isolated community the student could find approximated the vested interest, the inertia, the forces working for change, the pressure groups, the central core of common values, and the many competing alternate values which characterize modern society at large. As the student is helped to recognize these components of his college culture and their universality he should achieve insight into the role of the school and the teacher in society. The creative teacher needs such insights and social competence to fulfill adequately the role he has been assigned in our democratic society.

Persistent Problems in Professional Laboratory Experiences

The problems most frequently encountered seem to fall into two categories. First, there are basic policy issues which must be decided before any serious planning of professional laboratory experience may be undertaken. Second, there are organizational and administrative problems which follow once such broad policy has been determined.

Two basic policy questions of far-reaching significance for any program of professional laboratory experience are: First, what should be the relationship between development of skill in current best practice and the development of creativity? Second, what should be the relation between theoretical considerations in the college classroom and practical experience in the field?

Questions of Policy

What should be the relationship between the development of skill in current best practices and the development of creativity?—There is general agreement that teacher education should develop skill in the art of teaching and that there are practices worth outright emulation. In some cases, the evidence favorable to a given practice is supported by scientific research as well as by experience. There is no inclination to deny to the teacher-in-training the full benefits of this research and experience. The difficulty lies in preventing this purpose from dominating teacher education. It is easy to forget that teachers are individuals and that each individual has the potential for making a unique contribution to living which is so important to our democratic way of life. We may be forgetful also that a democracy rests upon the concept of improvability—that it is not only a society which encourages the honest study of its problems but one which reaches its greater and greater potential through the progressive resolutions of its problems. Further, education itself in our democracy is problematical and experimental in nature. If teaching is to reach its greatest potential in a democracy, it must be dynamic and problem oriented, and there must be the disposition to move ahead in the bold manner needed if democracy is to grow and flourish. This is a way of saying that the teacher in preparation must not be expected merely to emulate but to function as a co-worker. After being sure that he has the best possible preparation for accepting responsibility as a citizen and as a teacher, he must have increasing opportunity to try his wings, to participate in the planning of experience in the classroom and in the community, and to contribute his own ideas and unique personality.

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[19] Harap, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

This is of special importance in the student-teaching phases where frequently the young teacher with real ability and ideas may be so strictly reined in that he is prevented from growing to his potential limit. To allow more freedom at this point requires a special effort on the part of the community, the school staff, and particularly on the part of the supervising teacher. This effort is well worth making.

What should be the relationship between theoretical consideration in the college classroom and practical experience in the field? —There is no inclination to minimize the importance of either theoretical consideration or practical experience. Rather, they are seen as complementary components of an intelligent and creative endeavor to understand and to perfect the art of teaching. Speculation about the meaning of experience is a necessary foundation for the research attitude wherein experience is not taken merely for granted, but is continually appraised and assessed in terms of recognized goals toward which achievement may be measured. Practice without theoretical basis is blind, unintelligent, and acquiescent. It is inconsistent with the ends of a developing democratic society. But, theory without experience too is also baseless and idle speculation. The advantage comes when theory and experience are brought together. If this logic is acceptable, it would seem to require some greater effort in college programs of teacher education to escape from the sequential arrangement where theory courses precede the practice courses. Instead, theoretical course work should be organized to parallel or be integrated with so-called practical experience. Such a reciprocal arrangement would go far to help the student to become truly critical of practice and constructively oriented toward the improvement of teaching.

Further it may be argued with considerable justification that to follow any other course places teacher education in the dangerous and unenviable position of preaching that which it does not practice. There is general acceptance in the profession of the importance of direct experience in learning. The idea of "learning by doing" dominates most theoretical consideration of the art of teaching. Yet at the college level, teachers generally cling with great tenacity to the confines of their classroom even in the same courses where the advantages of direct experience are argued. This occurs in the face of increasing experimental evidence that the efficacy of theoretical study is greater when accompanied by direct experience. The answer to this problem seems obvious. A greater effort must be made to get a laboratory contact with real situations either in the school or classroom or in the community appropriate to each of the courses making up the professional sequence.

This statement should in no sense be taken to mark off the realm of direct experience as the special prerogative of professional education courses. If the integrating of direct and vicarious experience is good for these courses, it should be equally good for other courses contributing to the preparation of a teacher; and it should be equally good in those courses especially categorized as general education. In fact, the effectiveness of each of these portions of a teacher's education may be continuously improved through the insights and cross currents in thinking which direct experience in one area may bring to another.

This problem cannot be attacked in haphazard manner. If duplication of experience, competing for student time, ignoring significant cross references between experiences and theory, half planning, and wasteful fragmentation of experiences are to be avoided, there must be some co-ordination of program and effort. This requires joint planning of educational programs at the level of the department or college and at the university level to the end that responsibility be fixed for providing essential direct experiences and to the end that the program have sequence and continuity throughout. It further requires an adequate and co-ordinated guidance service to meet individual needs. These are the very minimal requirements of a program of teacher education which emphasizes the importance of direct experience in education.

Questions of Organization and Administration

How can the efforts of all persons concerned be co-ordinated? —In any program of professional laboratory experiences many persons in the college and in the community are involved. The work of instructors of professional courses, college instructors of academic courses, guidance personnel, community agency personnel, public-school teachers and administrators, and the supervisory staff together with the student himself must be co-ordinated so as to provide a useful and meaningful experience for the student in preparation for teaching.

The most obvious answer to the first problem lies in co-operative planning. Machinery for planning would need to be set up at several levels. First of all, there would need to be planning within the professional sequence. There should be planning between those entrusted with the professional and those entrusted with the academic education of students. There would need to be planning between the college and the community. There would need to be planning between the college and the off-campus school centers. Last, there would need to be planning at the level of adviser and the individual student.

Planning should determine an over-all pattern of experience and fix responsibility for carrying out the program at different levels and in the different divisions of the institution. It should insure sufficient flexibility in the different segments of the program. It should provide machinery for co-ordinating the total program.

If the institution which sets out upon such a program of direct experience involving off-campus school and community contacts is one of some size, there might be the need to regularize the co-ordinating function in a special office or official. In some colleges this function is being recognized by the provision of a specially qualified co-ordinator with general oversight of the whole program of laboratory experience. In one program cited above, this co-ordinator holds a joint appointment from the college and the city government. In other institutions, he is a college appointee with no official authority but serving in an advisory capacity.

There are doubtless many acceptable patterns for organizing the effort to integrate direct experience in teacher education. One caution is important. The program should continually be studied and developed in the broadest possible terms as encompassing all facets of direct experience. If a start must be made in some segment of the program of professional education, the effort should continually be made to broaden this beachhead to include as many as is possible of those pertinent experiences useful in the education of a teacher.

How can the increased costs and added staff be supplied and justified?—It must be recognized at the outset that a direct experience program will involve increased costs. The important relationship is that of cost to results in improved teaching. The experience of the medical profession can be cited. Highly individual, direct experience plays a dominating role in the education of a doctor at every stage of his training. The cost exceeds by several times the cost of educating a teacher. Yet, little argument is advanced that the cost is too great because the return in better doctors is proportionately great. Certainly the complexity of the teacher's responsibility as one who supposedly works as mediator of the social and personal and intellectual affairs of human beings is no less important than that of the medical doctor who works primarily toward man's physical well-being.

The solution of the problem of increased cost lies in part, however, in a revised view of the importance of various kinds of teaching activity. Direct experience need not necessarily be added to present theoretical considerations but may be substituted for some of these same considerations. Much of our present lecturing and quizzing in college classes without reference to doing is inefficient teaching. Much of the repetitiousness of college teaching is necessary because the teaching was not meaningful in the first place. At least some of the effort of college staffs might better be expended in guiding the intelligent appraisal of direct experience. Efforts of this kind should make possible a minimum program of direct laboratory experience even in the face of a limited budget.

How can each student be provided a unique experience which will take into account his maturity level and individual needs?—This problem will be compounded as the program of professional laboratory experiences is extended and increasing demands are made on school and community for participation in the program. The danger will be that in the necessary standardization of the process of supplying direct experience for large numbers, the individual will be lost sight of and experience will deteriorate into routine and empty activity unsuited to the needs of the individual student. Admittedly this is a difficult problem. However, some guide-line suggestions can be given. First, quality rather than the mere quantity of experience should be the goal. Participation in one visit to a classroom carefully prepared for and carefully evaluated is worth more than ten visits casually made. Participation in one community survey, if carefully done, may be worth more than a passing acquaintance with many surveys.

Second, a part of the program should be highly individualized. While it is agreed that there must be some minimal program standardized and required in a set sequence for all students, still a significant part of the program of direct experience should be left to be worked out between the individual student and his college adviser. In this segment of the program broad goals may be set by the college as, for example, the determination that every student in preparation for teaching should be able to work effectively with adult community groups. But the means of accomplishing this goal, the nature of the experience, the sequence of experiences, and the timing would become functions of individual guidance.

This leads directly to a third suggestion. If individual needs for direct experience are to be met, provision must be made for continuous and understanding personal guidance. In most institutions each student should be assigned a college staff sponsor who will take particular interest in his unique personal problems and lend continuing direction to his professional development throughout his college career and even beyond. To this college staff person would fall the principal responsibility for working out with his advisee the details of the individualized portion of his program of direct experience and for helping him arrive at valid interpretations of his experience.

A fourth guide-line consistent with the position taken throughout this analysis suggests that the problem approach rather than a *de facto* approach offers the best means of keeping experience vital and meaningful to the individual. Passive observation is not necessarily synonymous with direct experience. The effort must be made to help the student to identify and to define his personal and group problems in terms of recognized goals as the starting point for direct experience. The added effort must be made to seek out the kinds of opportunities for direct participation wherein students may take a responsible role in resolving these problems.

How can adequate interpretation and evaluation of experience in the field be provided?—It has been repeatedly emphasized that an experience without accompanying interpretation is largely lost effort. Such incomplete experiences are not worthy of a high quality program of professional laboratory experience. Three answers to this problem are suggested. First, the student must be adequately prepared to understand what he sees and does in the field. An activity, the broad lines of which are anticipated before entering the experience with goals fixed, hypothetical interpretations established, criteria for judging in mind, and tools for working in the area in hand will excel by many times the usefulness of one which is entered without such preparation. No activity in the planned sequence of laboratory experience should be entered without this previous careful campus orientation. This should be done even at the expense of cutting down on the quantity of field experience.

Second, the college must provide supervision of experience in the field. This step seems to be a natural consequence of going outside the classroom for some content in college education. If college teachers are to work at all effectively with the student in a direct experience program, teacher and student must maintain some common points of reference. As will be pointed out later, much of the work of day to day supervision of experience may be entrusted to co-operating personnel in the field, but the over-all responsibility should continue to rest with the college. In some cases, as will student teaching, it will mean frequent contacts of the college staff with students and with school or other personnel. In other cases, as in a community study or survey, this will entail the responsible participation of the college staff along with the student in the study.

Third, colleges must provide in-service training of co-operating school and other field agency personnel. It is highly important that staff members who work with students in the field be enlisted as full partners in the venture. Their inclusion in planning will insure that all are working toward common purposes. The usefulness of the college staff in a program of direct experience may be multiplied many fold through the help it may offer to field agency staffs in developing more effective ways to work with the student and with the community.

Some institutions are meeting the problem of orienting field agency personnel to a program of direct experience by holding conferences or workshops in the field: some invite participation of such personnel in campus conferences or workshops; courses are offered in some, directed to the end of preparing off-campus personnel for supervising direct experiences; while still others are cementing the relationship between college staff and community agency personnel by giving persons who work with students in the school or community rank and position on the college staff. Most institutions depend principally on direct contact between the college supervisors and agency personnel. All of these seem to recommend themselves as useful ways to work at the problem of providing adequate supervision for a high quality program of professional laboratory experience.

How can the student be protected from the imposition of unreasonable restrictions on his individual initiative, and at the same time the school or other agency be protected from ill-advised experimentation on the part of the student?—In its broad outlines, the answer has already been indicated. Planning for the experience and preparation of both student and off-campus personnel will remove in large measure the possibility that either of the extremes mentioned will occur. One further suggestion is pertinent here. The college does have a responsibility for selection both of students and of situations in which experience may be provided. Neither should be accepted if it does not hold promise of a high quality experience. This means that the student who does not possess potential should be guided out of the program of teacher education. This means also that community agencies that cannot meet the requirements of a high quality experience should likewise be eliminated. A considerable portion of the job of providing a high quality of experience will consist of seeking out situations which have the potential for such an experience.

What should be the role of the campus laboratory school in a high quality program of professional laboratory experience?—At the very outset it should be pointed out that the laboratory school may have other functions, as, for example, research which may justify its existence regardless of the contribution it may make to providing direct laboratory experience. Useful as the research function may be, it is not the concern of this book. Neither is our concern at this point with the school which is merely a co-operating school in that it affords an opportunity to observe an actual school in operation, or to engage in student teaching. We are concerned here with the laboratory school as an institution in close proximity geographically to a college campus and under the partial or complete control of a college staff wherein those preparing to teach may be provided an opportunity for direct experience with children and with the administration of a program of education. It is obvious that the laboratory school in this general sense can no longer be thought of as providing all of the direct experience needed in the education of a teacher. The laboratory school as a special and restricted kind of community is unsuited to provide much of the broad experience in a going community which is now considered important in the education of a teacher. These experiences are possible only through contact with the broader community in which children and teachers live. There is even some question as to whether the laboratory school is the best possible place to do student teaching. The charge is that the experience will be too sheltered and unreal as compared with that which is obtainable in the off-campus situation. A high proportion of student teachers to students minimizes the possibility of student teachers being accepted as genuine co-workers in a school community. Further, while student teachers may thrive in the more permissive atmosphere possible in a laboratory school, at the same time, many kinds of controlled research become difficult when student teachers are involved.

Despite these limitations, the laboratory school will continue to play an important special role in providing direct experience in a program of teacher education. This special role is a function of the proximity of the laboratory school to the campus where teachers are being prepared as well as a function of the more permissive and flexible nature of the program which is possible in a laboratory school. There will continue to be many occasions in any program of teacher education when a quick look in the flesh, or a demonstration of a procedure, or an opportunity to work directly with children will be needed, and these experiences could not be easily and quickly provided in the off-campus situation. The laboratory school can continually and conveniently serve as a checking point for theory. If the laboratory school staff is freed of the load of student teaching, many different kinds of extremely useful and timely co-operative arrangements between college and laboratory school staffs can be worked out to enrich continually the classroom experience of teachers in preparation. It should be expected that the staff of the laboratory school is especially interested and especially qualified to work in teacher education. In like vein, it should be expected that the college staff is interested in keeping in close touch with real children and with real school problems. In this atmosphere direct experience of great significance for students should be more easily fashioned.

Undoubtedly other problems both of policy and administration will confront a staff as it works to vitalize its educational program.

But the difficulties are not insuperable. The return in teachers competent to guide the youth of our democracy justifies the effort.

A Glance at the Future of Professional Laboratory Experiences

The central role of experience and its relationship to theoretical knowledge were aptly stated by Adlai Stevenson in a recent address to college students in these words: "What a man knows at fifty that he did not know at twenty years, for the most part, is incommunicable. . . . It boils down to something like this: The knowledge he has acquired with age is not a knowledge of formulas, or forms of words, but of people, places, actions—a knowledge not gained by words, but by touch, sight, sound, victories, failures, sleeplessness, devotion, love—the human experience and emotions of this earth and of one's self and other men; and perhaps, too, a little faith, and a little reverence for things you cannot see." [20]

Direct experience will continue to play an expanding role in the education of teachers. As effective behavior becomes the goal of all education, including the education of teachers, the recognition of direct experience as one of the essential phases of the educational process will be more widespread.

The emerging patterns of direct experiences will emphasize the creative phase of problem-solving and provide opportunities for the student participants to acquire skill in proven practices. This is in keeping with the democratic values system which emphasizes creating new patterns while building on funded knowledge.

Recent studies of personality development reveal that the most efficient method by which one person can influence another is through working on a meaningful project with him. Research continues to confirm the position that thinking and doing must go together if true learning is to occur. This suggests the unfathomed potentials of experience.

Direct experience will become as much a part of the college instructional program as the traditional lecture when its potentials are recognized and the necessary techniques developed by the college staff.

Kahlil Gibran, the late Lebanese poet-philosopher, has sensed what the psychologists and educators have discovered about the role of the teacher: "The teacher who walks in the shadow of the temple among his followers, gives not of his wisdom but rather of his faith and his lovingness. If he is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind." [21]

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[20] Address to Senior Class, Princeton University, March 22, 1954.

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[21] Gibran, Kahlil, *The Prophet*. New York: Knopf, 1937, p. 64.

7

RELATING THE SEVERAL PARTS OF THE TEACHER-EDUCATION PROGRAM *

Each of the parts of the program of teacher education—general education, specialization, and professional education—has a distinct contribution to make to the preparation of teachers. That contribution, however, is affected by the way in which each part is related to the other two. Therefore, it is important that the program be viewed as a whole. In this chapter proposals in the preceding chapters that seem promising are brought together and reviewed as guides for building and evaluating a program of pre-service teacher education. The guides and proposals are then used in projecting several programs.

Guides for Curriculum Development in Pre-service Teacher Education

The program of teacher education is constantly being changed as students and instructors work together, and periodically more complete modification and reorganization are made by a staff working in an area or by the faculty as a whole. It is important that practice be reviewed and checked in order that agreed-upon standards may be achieved. Whether the resulting change is major or minor, it should be based on accepted values. The guides which follow represent the basic qualities suggested in this volume as important for pre-service teacher education.

Goal Directed Toward the Role of the Citizen-Teacher in Our Society

The overall goal of teacher education as previously stated is to prepare teachers to contribute to the improvement of society in a threefold manner—as active citizens, as educational leaders in their communities, and as guides who help children and youth become informed, active citizens. This suggests that the curriculum of teacher education should be designed to develop *citizen-teachers whose leadership is characterized by:*

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* This chapter was prepared by Professor Florence B. Stratemeyer, Teachers College, Columbia University.

1. Sensitivity to and understanding of the basic personal, social, and professional problems and situations with which the citizen-teacher deals
2. A scholarly approach in dealing with these problems—intelligent problem solving and an emotional mature expression of feelings and ideas—which includes:
   a. drawing upon substantial learning in fields of knowledge and a usable acquaintance with established sources of reliable information
   b. continuing search for truth, for greater understanding and insight
   c. translating ideas and ideals into action
3. Commitment to democratic values and their implementation
4. Action governed by principle rather than by a fixed or patterned way of working
5. Creativity in dealing with situations, evidenced by:
   a. adjusting to the unique elements
   b. working co-operatively in ways which release the potential power of individuals
   c. experimenting with ideas and new ways of working

These essential qualities of leadership apply both to the activities of the teacher as individual and citizen and as a member of the teaching profession.

Meaningful Experiences That Lead to Change in Behavior

The foregoing goals are of a high order. To realize them, curriculum experiences must be selected with care. *Experiences* which give promise of being most productive of the learning desired have been proposed in earlier chapters as those *in which:*

1. Purposes of the college student and meaningfulness are central. That is:
   a. the meaning for the student must reside within the experience itself (not in something outside, such as a grade or college degree)
   b. immediate situations faced by the student are the starting point for learning in areas in which he does not have previous meaningful experiences upon which to draw
2. Immediate problems and concerns are related to the continuing and recurring life situations with which the citizen-teacher deals, thereby
   a. helping the student to widen his horizons and to extend his thinking
   b. providing the student an opportunity to work with situations similar to those in which his learning will be used

3. Organized bodies of knowledge are utilized in terms of the student's background of experience with practical situations,
    a. serving as a resource from which to select data needed in dealing with a situation
    b. providing a logically organized field where the student can relate the parts appropriately to the kinds of situations in which he will need to use the material
4. Both course activities and those which are a part of the life and work of the college itself are included
5. Both direct and vicarious learning are utilized, the former as needed for
    a. giving meaning to a new experience
    b. providing a more exact and accurate concept of the meaning of theory in action
    c. helping the student to see his needs more clearly
    d. testing his ability to act in keeping with his concepts and skills
6. Professional implications and the use of the area of study are pointed out in nonprofessional courses and activities

The foregoing guides indicate the nature of the experiences to be included in the teacher-education program and are to be used in selecting content and activities in general education, in fields of specialization, and in professional education.

Organization to Facilitate Integration of Experiences

Experiences which relate meaningfully to the situations and problems with which the citizen-teacher deals do not necessarily follow the boundaries of the usual subjects in either academic or professional education. Professional problems often require the use of materials from the academic fields, and situations faced by the individual and citizen frequently draw upon data from education. This being true, it was suggested in previous chapters that the *organization of experiences be one which:*

1. Brings together those continuing life situations which are closely related to form natural groupings
    a. in courses
    b. between class and out-of-class activities
2. Integrates content from the various disciplines as needed in dealing with a situation or problem
3. Includes general and professional education as a part of each college year
4. Provides work in fields of specialization throughout the four years at those points which best serve the needs of the individual student

5. Offers broad fields of concentration as areas of specialization in accordance with the demands that will be made upon the citizen-teacher
6. Makes it possible for the student, with guidance, to select experiences in terms of the leadership role for which he is preparing and his particular needs, interests, and abilities

These six guides suggest an organization designed to help the student bring his various experiences into relationships similar to those found in the activities in which the teacher engages "on-the-job." It is an organization which is neither wholly prescribed nor wholly elective. It is prescribed by the nature of the work for which the student is preparing and the quality of citizen needed in our society. It is elective in that courses and other activities are chosen by the student and his adviser in terms of his particular background and needs in realizing his goals.

Guidance of Experiences for Effective Learning

Both the nature of the experiences selected and their organization affect the quality of learning. But well-selected and well-organized activities *per se* do not result in high-level learning. The quality of the experience is directly influenced by the guidance given. What is known about the way in which learning takes place suggests that the *guidance of experiences* included in the teacher-education curriculum *should:*

1. Exemplify and demonstrate the same basic principles of education that the student is urged to use in guiding the activities of children and youth
2. Provide for active student participation in the planning, carrying out, and evaluation of experiences
3. Provide for individual differences in interests, needs, and abilities
4. Provide the essentials for intelligent problem solving and adequate emotional expression of ideas and feelings, including
   a. reflection on experience leading to generalizations which can be used as bases for action in subsequent situations
   b. use of these generalizations in a range of activities
5. Provide qualitative evaluation in terms of competencies required of the citizen-teacher (rather than in terms of just fulfilling a given number of hours or points of credit). This applies to attainment in any area, the completion of curricula, and certification for teaching
6. Assure the continuing counsel and advice of one or more persons who know the student well

The degree to which the foregoing guides characterize college teaching is very important in any program of teacher education. As a direct experience for the student, college teaching can build positive enthusiasm for, and understanding of, fundamental principles of teaching, or defeat the realization of desired goals.

A Curriculum Responsive to Change

A curriculum designed to prepare teachers for a changing society must itself be responsive to change. Those charged with its development must possess that quality of scholarship which constantly seeks to find better ways of achieving stated purposes. *Curriculum change* which leads to modification of the behavior of people is believed to be that *in which:*

1. All persons affected—staff, students, administration—have a part in bringing about the change
2. Co-operative evaluation and modification of the curriculum are made in the light of the achievement of goals as evidenced by the action-behavior of students
3. Experimentation is based on a constant search for better ways of achieving desired goals; on continuing study of the college student and of changing factors in society
4. Basic principles of learning and meaningful experiences give direction to ways of working

Using the complete set of guides to look at the curriculum of teacher education, staff members individually and in groups will find points which suggest experimentation and change.

Projecting a Curriculum Design: Three Illustrations

If one were able fully to implement each of the foregoing guides, what would be the design of the curriculum? It is clear that no single design would result because specific factors in each situation would affect the curriculum proposed. The needs and interests of the particular student body might suggest certain emphases or a special form of organization, and the insight and imagination of the local staff group would also be a major influence. There are varied ways to achieve the same goals, especially when the students who determine the starting point are quite different.

The four-year curricula outlined in the material which follows project three designs which might result from the application of the guides just discussed. Each is illustrative only and is presented as a tentative proposal to be tested or to be used for the suggestions it brings to mind for the development of other seemingly more promising programs. The first, Plan I, might be developed by the members of a staff interested in working as teaching teams in rather large block courses, some of which cut across academic divisions. Plan II suggests the use of less comprehensive blocks (within divisions) and might be developed in a college where staff members see values in planning a course co-operatively but do not expect to teach as staff teams. Plan III is designed in smaller course units developed around problems and situations to which a particular field or two closely related fields make a special contribution.

Each design has several characteristics in common as a result of the effort to carry out the curriculum guides outlined in the preceding section. Whatever the organization of specific experiences, it is believed that the student's needs as an individual and the social situations which he meets as a citizen, indicate that attention should be given to situations which involve singly or in combination (a) using and developing *personal resources,* (b) understanding and dealing with the *natural environment and technological resources,* and (c) knowing and working with *political, social, and economic forces and structures.* The student's professional experiences, however organized, must equip him to meet situations in three major areas—working (d) *with children and youth,* (e) with colleagues as a co-operating *member of a professional team,* and (f) with laymen as a *representative of the profession* and the field of education in society. Each of the proposals reflects these groupings of problems in the organization suggested. Other organizations might help the student deal with the same problem areas and situations through different groupings.

In proposing a structural organization, decisions must also be made regarding the sequence of experiences. It is necessary to project the groupings of problems most crucial to students as they proceed through college. Each proposal is based on the assumption that as the student matures there will be a probable change in the situations he faces. The freshman, close to his high school and his professional choice, faces a major problem in testing whether his choice is sound. Progressively he becomes more and more aware of the responsibilities of the experienced teacher, moving perhaps from those relating to the classroom, to those of the school unit, and on to broader educational problems. In general education the freshman builds on work in high school, with increasing attention to underlying causes and processes and the marshalling of substantial evidence in dealing with a problem. Increased exploration of problems leads to greater insight into needed areas of concentration and suggests areas of continued study to achieve breadth of experience.

The suggested guides for designing the program of teacher education indicate the desirability of working in terms of the competence of the student and the demands of society and of the profession, rather than in terms of credit hours. However, since for some little time to come most colleges will need to give some attention to credit, an estimated allocation is indicated. Each program totals 128 semester hours of work, exclusive of the proposed summer experiences. In some colleges the latter can be made a regular part of the curriculum and additional credit given; in others it will be necessary, for the present, to provide such experiences without credit for those who can avail themselves of the opportunity. Many students are employed during summer periods and can be helped to obtain work which will make a positive contribution to them as citizens and prospective teachers. Within the 128 semester hours, activities of college life which are recognized as part of the student's learning experience are credited as a part of the courses to which they relate and as guided elective activities. To illustrate the latter, a student and his adviser may assign a given number of points of elective credit to work on the college paper.

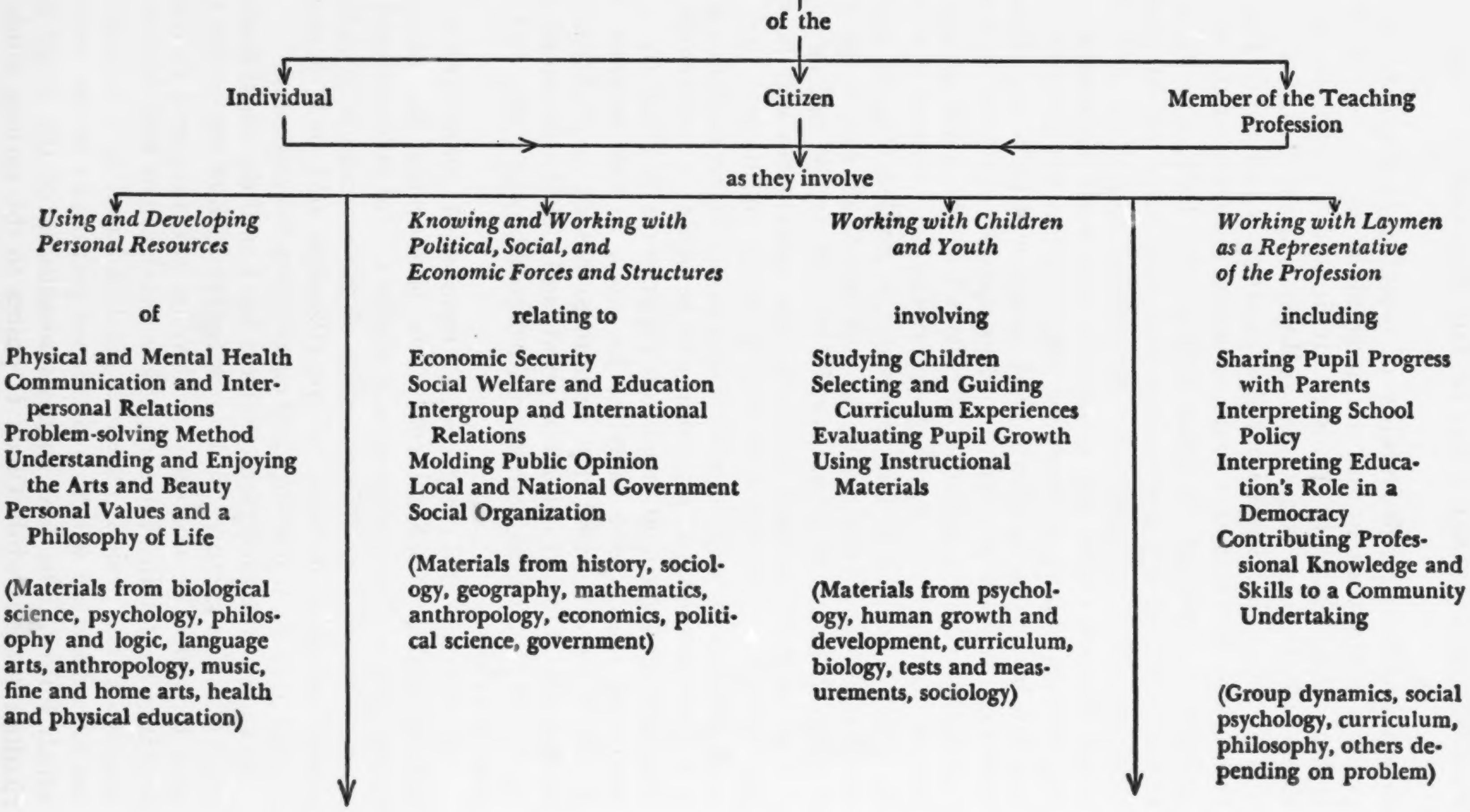
It is assumed in each program that experiences will be guided and that direct experiences will be made an integral part of all courses when they appropriately contribute to the student's growth. It is also assumed that provision will be made for differentiation of assignments in general education experiences to allow the student interested in teaching to relate his work to that interest. In addition, it is recognized that certain goals such as problem-solving ability, the skills of communication, and the development of personal and professional values are furthered by many class and out-of-class activities.

The same general design, with a number of common elements in general and professional education, is proposed for prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers. The differentiated needs of those working in different parts of the educational program are related to work in areas of specialization and such professional courses as student teaching and curriculum development.

In each of the projected curricula are found the usual limitations of an overall structure. To know whether each of the guides is fully met, it would be necessary to develop the proposed courses and activities in detail. However, the general intent and direction are implied in the design presented. Each is based on a conception of teacher education which is presented pictorially in the two charts which follow. The first suggests something of the scope of curriculum content while Chart II points to the various kinds of activities in which the student may engage.

CHART I

GUIDING THE PROSPECTIVE TEACHER IN MEETING EFFECTIVELY THE CONTINUING LIFE SITUATIONS



of the

Individual

Citizen

Member of the Teaching Profession

as they involve

Using and Developing Personal Resources

of

- Physical and Mental Health
- Communication and Interpersonal Relations
- Problem-solving Method
- Understanding and Enjoying the Arts and Beauty
- Personal Values and a Philosophy of Life

(Materials from biological science, psychology, philosophy and logic, language arts, anthropology, music, fine and home arts, health and physical education)

Knowing and Working with Political, Social, and Economic Forces and Structures

relating to

- Economic Security
- Social Welfare and Education
- Intergroup and International Relations
- Molding Public Opinion
- Local and National Government
- Social Organization

(Materials from history, sociology, geography, mathematics, anthropology, economics, political science, government)

Working with Children and Youth

involving

- Studying Children
- Selecting and Guiding Curriculum Experiences
- Evaluating Pupil Growth
- Using Instructional Materials

(Materials from psychology, human growth and development, curriculum, biology, tests and measurements, sociology)

Working with Laymen as a Representative of the Profession

including

- Sharing Pupil Progress with Parents
- Interpreting School Policy
- Interpreting Education's Role in a Democracy
- Contributing Professional Knowledge and Skills to a Community Undertaking

(Group dynamics, social psychology, curriculum, philosophy, others depending on problem)

CHART I, CONTINUED

Understanding and Dealing with the Natural Environment and Technological Resources

related to

Physical Phenomena

Plant and Animal Life

Physical and Chemical Forces

Technological Resources and Advance

(Materials of astronomy, biology, physics, chemistry, geology, mathematics)

Working with Colleagues as a Member of a Professional Team

including

Participating in Faculty Meetings, Conferences

Working on Various Staff Committees

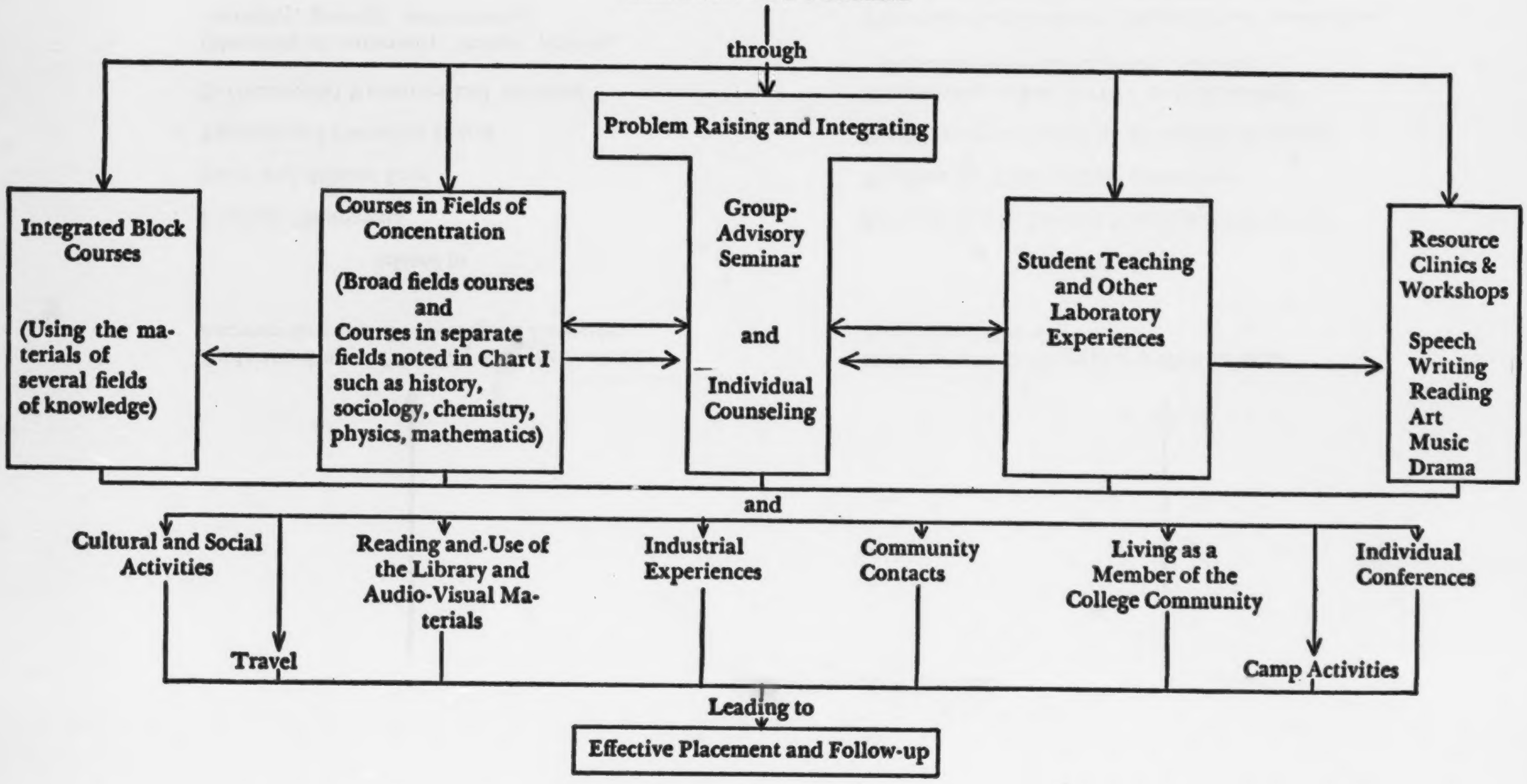
Participating in In-service Education Programs

Membership in and Service to Professional Organizations—Local, State, National

(Materials of educational administration, curriculum, other areas depending on problem at hand)

CHART II

GUIDING THE PROSPECTIVE TEACHER IN MEETING EFFECTIVELY CONTINUING LIFE SITUATIONS


through
Problem Raising and Integrating
Integrated Block Courses
(Using the materials of several fields of knowledge)
Courses in Fields of Concentration
(Broad fields courses and Courses in separate fields noted in Chart I such as history, sociology, chemistry, physics, mathematics)
Group-Advisory Seminar
and
Individual Counseling
Student Teaching and Other Laboratory Experiences
Resource Clinics & Workshops
Speech
Writing
Reading
Art
Music
Drama
and
Cultural and Social Activities
Travel
Reading and Use of the Library and Audio-Visual Materials
Industrial Experiences
Community Contacts
Living as a Member of the College Community
Camp Activities
Individual Conferences
Leading to
Effective Placement and Follow-up

Designing the Curriculum in Large Blocks Taught by Staff Teams

In order to give a more meaningful picture of the proposed curriculum organized around large blocks of related problems and situations, it is first presented in chart form to indicate the nature of the work over the four-year period. Following this each course block is briefly outlined to suggest the major areas of continuing problems to be included and related out-of-class experiences are illustrated.

In designing Plan I effort was made to:

1. Focus on continuing life situations, bringing together those which have a natural interrelationship and using materials from the various fields of knowledge as needed
2. Recognize the need for continuing study of problem areas over the college years to provide new and deeper insights as the student matures (also to assure the student's continued exploration of areas)
3. Limit the number of different major activities at any one time so that, through concentration, opportunity is provided for intensive work in an area
4. Recognize that the teacher's work requires intimate contact with many aspects of the culture. To this end guided electives include both broad fields courses and work in more specific areas
5. Provide for out-of-class learning experiences, as a factor affecting the total load of the student at any one time, through:
   a. Allocating credit when the activity is essentially a learning experience. Initial need for consideration of ways to use such experiences meaningfully is provided in the Advisory Seminar in the first semester of the freshman year. Further credit is assigned as such experiences are an integral part of classwork or as they are selected as appropriate guided electives
   b. Seeing them as non-credit activities when they are not primarily intended as learning experiences but are needed as activities of the individual in his rounded college living. Some recreational activities or work in physical education might thus move from a credit to a non-credit experience. This is not to suggest that they are any less important as non-credit activities. Their function is to help the student to learn to carry a full work responsibility and still lead a balanced life. What the student is doing in non-credit activities under the guidance of the college is a matter of counsel between the student and his adviser so that he may be helped to develop a balanced plan of living which will carry over into his life as a citizen-teacher (for some students who have special problems, work in health and physical education would be an activity assigned credit over a number of semesters)

6. Provide, throughout the four years, a balance of general and professional education and work in fields of concentration, as follows:

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>General Education</th><th>Speciali-zation</th><th>Professional Education</th></tr>
<tr><td>1st year</td><td>27 *</td><td></td><td>3 *</td></tr>
<tr><td>2nd</td><td>22 *</td><td>9</td><td>3 *</td></tr>
<tr><td>3rd</td><td colspan="2">Ele.—20
← →
Sec.—24</td><td>Ele.—12
Sec.— 8</td></tr>
<tr><td>4th</td><td colspan="2">4 ← 10 →</td><td>18</td></tr>
</table>

* Estimated although work is integrated.

What the foregoing allocation means in terms of various areas is suggested, first, in the curriculum plan which follows. Second, what this means more specifically in terms of content and experiences—areas of continuing problems and illustrative related direct experiences—will be found in the detailed statements which are given after the block plan. Third, how the curriculum design might develop for a particular student is then projected. Three such programs are designed for different students with different professional goals: for a prospective elementary-school teacher, for a student who plans to work in the social studies as a broad field in the secondary curriculum, and for a prospective teacher of mathematics in the secondary school.

PLAN I

PROJECTED LARGE BLOCK CURRICULUM
FOR PROSPECTIVE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS
WITH AREAS TAUGHT BY A STAFF TEAM

1st Year	S.H.	2nd Year	S.H.	3rd Year	S.H.	4th Year	S.H.
Self-Understanding	6–	Bio-social Development of the Individual and the Selection and Guidance of Experiences	4–3	Designing the Curriculum for Elementary-School Children Secondary-School Youth	 8– 4–	Student Teaching and Seminar	15–
Self-understanding and self-appraisal in terms of personal and professional needs—including individual counseling, Group Advisory Seminar, direct experiences for exploratory and remedial purposes and for health and recreation.		Children, youth, and adults growing up in society and the nature of learning—what this means for selecting and guiding experiences.		Determining scope and sequence of curriculum experiences, the learner's part in developing the curriculum, instructional materials and their uses, essentials in guiding different areas of learning, evaluating pupil growth and the educational program.		American Education in a World Society	–3
						Professional seminar for reflective thinking on major educational issues; checking and testing a personal philosophy of education.	
Understanding and Dealing with Physical Phenomena	–4						
Factors and forces of the natural environment, primarily as they affect personal development. What they and technological advance mean for changing cultural patterns and social problems is dealt with in *Social, Economic, Political Problems in World Cultures.*				*Working with* Colleagues and Laymen in Developing a Total Educational Program	–4		
				Relating various parts of the educational program;			

PLAN I, CONTINUED

Communicating Thought and Feeling Building personal skills of writing and discussion; literature as an expression of thought and feeling.	4–6	→ Literature and other arts as an expression of thought and feeling; mass media—propaganda and the molding of public opinion.	5–3	implications for working co-operatively with colleagues, administration, parents, and other laymen.			
Social, Economic, Political Problems in World Cultures Basic problems and issues studied in the light of *historical trends,* modern *scientific development, technological advance,* the *values sought. Literature and the arts* as expressions of and the molders of thinking on these issues.	5–5	→	5–5			**Major Issues in a World Society** Seminar for reflective thinking about issues which are central in establishing a world society; further clarification of a personal set of values.	–4
During the second semester the problem of "education as a social force in a democracy" will be considered.		**Guided Electives in Areas of Specialization**	3–6	**Guided Electives in General Education and Specialization** Elementary Majors Secondary Majors	 8–12 12–12	**Guided Electives in General Education or Specialization**	–10
	15–15		17–17		16–16		15–17
	Summer in Industrial Experience		Summer in a Youth or Children's Camp		Summer in Travel		

In the pages which follow the courses and seminars included in Plan I are further detailed, as noted earlier, to indicate the areas of continuing problems and to illustrate related direct experiences. Because a number of the course blocks and activities continue over more than one college year, they are organized with reference to the types of situations listed on page 238. *First* there are the courses in which the student is helped to deal with situations which involve primarily *using and developing personal resources. Second* are those which focus on situations which involve understanding and coping with the *natural environment and technological resources* and/or *political, social, and economic forces and structures.* The *third* group are the courses in which attention is given to situations met in *working professionally with children, colleagues, and community personnel.* The *fourth* group refers to *guided electives in general education and specialization* which make an added contribution to any one or more of the types of situations noted in the first three groups.

I. USING AND DEVELOPING PERSONAL RESOURCES

Seminars and Courses

Self-Understanding (I) [1]

This block helps the student toward self-understanding and the setting of personal and professional goals based upon self-appraisal as he deals with problems and situations relating to:

Maintaining optimum health: underlying physiological and psychological understandings.
The decision-making process: problem of values in modern life.
Communicating thought and feeling: expressing and creating and understanding the expression of others.
Social attitudes and relatedness to others.

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests [2]

1. Participation in admissions program (with student-adviser interpretation of high-school experiences, test results, etc.) (I).
2. Medical examination (with direct instruction during the freshman year and student-adviser interpretation of the medical report each year following) (I–IV).
3. Individual guidance to include "long-view" planning of college work and advisory counseling service (I–IV).

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[1] The figures I–IV refer to the four college years and indicate the suggested placement of the course or activity. The symbol (I–IV) suggests that the student would probably share in some aspect of the experience over the four years. When no symbol is used, the experience is believed to be one which should be entered upon at the time appropriate to the individual student.

[2] Illustrative only and it is not expected that all students will participate in each activity.

Seminars and Courses

Coping with problem situations; the application of the method of intelligence to everyday situations.
Exploring vocational choices.

Problems of health, moral and spiritual values, communication, human relations, and vocational choice will be met many times during the student's four years at college. In this block they are viewed to discover needs and to achieve better understanding of present strengths and shortages and what they mean for the student's personal and professional goals and his program of college experiences.

It is suggested that the block be developed first through the Group Advisory Seminars and direct experiences relating to interests and needs as initially identified. As these first experiences point to other needs and raise new questions and concerns the work may move forward through three channels—(1) introduction of class-group study of commonly identified problems of personal development, (2) further direct experiences [related to (1) and/or (3)] which contribute to self-understanding, (3) meetings of Group Advisory Seminars to help the student relate his experiences in this block to each other and to other courses and activities in his freshman year, and to work on special problems and interests.

Advisers and one or more staff members responsible for the direct study of self-understanding would be assisted by different colleagues in carrying out particular activities.

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

4. Rest and activity to meet individual needs (I–IV).
   a. Sports program
   b. Recreation program through use of such resource laboratories as the:
      Game room
      Arts and crafts studio
      Music studio
      Browsing room of library
   c. Group activities such as chorus, string quartet, orchestra, club groups
   d. Social program

5. Exploratory activities in some of the foregoing to discover needs and special interests. Other activities might include: (I)

   Working with Boy or Girl Scouts
   Teaching a Sunday School group
   Participating in short-term activities with children and youth
   Attending the speech or writing clinic
   Working in the reading clinic on special needs as discovered
   Dramatic activities
   Creative writing

Seminars and Courses

Communicating Thought and Feeling (I, II)

This block deals with the communication of thought and feeling as a two-way process: to share ideas with others and to understand their ideas and feelings. One aspect deals with building personal skills of writing and discussion including the use of literature to increase sensitivity to and appreciation of good writing. Another aspect is designed to build understanding and enjoyment of ideas and feelings expressed through various art forms—music, dance, drama, literature, fine arts, home arts—and to develop some personal creativity of expression. Attention is given to problems and situations relating to:

- Better speaking, writing, listening, observing, reading
- Effective group discussion in human affairs
- Understanding and enjoying:
  - Literature as a form—poetry, the novel, drama, exposition
  - Music and the dance
  - Art forms such as painting, sculpture, architecture, design, sketching
  - Home arts such as dress, interior decoration
- Analysis and interpretation of mass media—radio, television, the press—propaganda and the molding of public opinion

Materials from the fields of speech, communication, literature, the fine and home arts, music, and the dance are used in dealing with student problems of leisure and recreation, dress, the creation of a satisfying physical environment, interpreting mass media of com-

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

1. Work in *Communications Laboratory and Clinic* on various aspects of communication according to needs and interests (I–IV).
2. Workshop activities in: (I–IV)
   - Music studio
   - Art studio
   - *Little Theater* and drama workshop
3. Leisure reading in Browsing Room (I–IV).
4. Reading of daily newspaper and selected magazines (I–IV).
5. Participation in *Creative Writing Club*.
6. Responsibility for various college publications (magazine or paper, college yearbook).
7. Work on student-staff committees responsible for college catalog, college publicity, recruitment materials and activities, special bulletins.
8. Participating in college-sponsored radio programs and telecasts.
9. Sponsoring and participating in forums and assemblies on issues of concern to the student body.
10. Sharing in group discussions in college classes, in club groups, in voluntary religious organizations.
11. Participating in student government organization.
12. Participation on college committees—student committees of various kinds, and student-staff committees on curriculum, social life, programs and forums.

Seminars and Courses

munication, enjoying good writing, individual creative expression, effective communication in social situations, in group discussion of human affairs, in making a formal presentation.

It is suggested that a team of three staff members with special competence in communication, literature, the arts carry major responsibility for teaching the two-year sequence, with representatives from the fields of speech, music, social psychology, and the home arts serving as consultants and sharing in the planning of the block.

Bio-Social Development of the Individual and the Selection and Guidance of Experiences (II)

As the title suggests this block contributes both to "use and development of personal resources" (general education) and to professional education. It is discussed in the section relating to professional education.

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

13. Responsibility for arranging (and from time to time furnishing) social rooms, individual dormitory rooms, classrooms—plants, wall hangings, pictures.
14. Social program (including small and larger group attendance at concerts, movies, the theater, the museum, dancing, informal gatherings).
15. "Personal" laboratory (where individual may secure help with grooming, making or remaking clothes, caring for clothing, social amenities, and the like).
16. Telling stories to children.
17. Observing reactions of children and youth to books, movies, music.
18. Observing and participating in children's sharing periods and in discussions with children and youth groups.

II. Understanding and Dealing with the Natural Environment and Technological Resources
and
Political, Social, and Economic Forces and Structures

Understanding and Dealing with Physical Phenomena (I)

This block deals with factors and forces of the natural environment, pri-

1. Participating in hobby groups such as: (I–IV)

   Astronomy Club

Seminars and Courses	*Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests*
marily as they affect personal development. Materials from the fields of astronomy, geology, geography, physics, chemistry, mathematics, and philosophy are used to build basic principles needed in dealing with problems and situations relating to:	*Photography Club* *Field and Stream* (Outdoor Club) 2. Managing group trips and excursions—planetarium, geological formations.
The climatological factor in human living: human adjustments and adaptations to prevailing meteorological conditions. The nature of the universe: modern cosmologies and their impact on human life and thought The control and use of man's plant and animal competitors The nature of chemical change: the use and control of chemical changes in everyday activities	3. Assisting the Director of Food Services with the care of foods and equipment. 4. Accompanying a group of children or high-school youth on a field trip—nature hike or visit to a planetarium.
The teaching team responsible for this block might be made up of two staff members with special competence in geography and the physical sciences.	
Social, Economic, Political Problems in World Cultures (I, II)	
This block deals with the major problems and issues facing the United States as a part of a world society. The interrelation of man and his environment is studied as scientific development and technological advance are seen in relation to changing cultural patterns and social problems.	
Some problems and situations are rooted in scientific developments but need to be considered with reference to the attendant social problems and implications. For example:	1. Visiting a variety of power plants to determine cost and efficiency of various ways of generating power. 2. Engaging for a period in industry.
The individual and the wise use of natural resources; the ecological	3. Visiting a demonstration farm.

Seminars and Courses

approach to conservation policies and practices

The production, use, and control of electric power: technological bases for developing regional and national power policies

The automatization of the means of production: technology on the farm and the coming automatic factory

The social impact of science and technology: the role of the individual and social institutions in a rapidly changing industrial society

Other situations focus on social problems and need to be considered in the light of scientific developments which affect them. For example:

The family as a primary group

Securing goods and services: trade relations, price systems, investments

The nature of social control: labor-management relations, control through government

International organizations and the problems of world peace

Providing for social welfare: public services, security measures

Molding public opinion in a democracy

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

4. Working with soil conservation expert.
5. Managing a service laboratory for the repair of household equipment. (This might be a service to the college community—staff, students.)
6. Participating in "management" of college-sponsored radio station.
7. Using and contributing to the *Public Affairs Laboratory* in which current and historical materials relating to economic, social, and political forces are brought together. (This enterprise might be the special responsibility of a group of students.)
8. Working on a student-staff committee (headed by the Business Manager or Controller) on budgeting for and purchasing of supplies, insurance, and other business relating to the college.
9. Participating in activities of the local Public Health Service (e.g., public health nursing, settlement house activities).
10. Observing various branches of the government at work and talking with representatives.
11. Attending a meeting of the state legislature on a hearing of budget requests for education.
12. Reading a daily paper and selected magazines (I–IV).
13. Sharing in a local election or campaign relating to a measure before the legislature.

Seminars and Courses

During the first year of this two-year sequence, attention will be given to the "role of education as a social force in a democracy." This area of study is designed to meet the special interests and concerns of the prospective teacher regarding his choice of professional field. It also serves the student with a different occupational goal who as a citizen needs to consider:

The role of education in our society
The role of the school in education
The work of today's teacher
Occupational opportunities and demands

Dealing with the very basic and comprehensive issues considered in this two-year block so that students will (1) understand the historical backgrounds and trends which give meaning to present situations and (2) think critically about present practices and needed change and what is involved in bring-

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

14. Attending a children's court or other unit of the judicial system.
15. Observing slum clearance, housing projects, recreational developments.
16. Exchanging ideas with students from other lands.
17. Field trips into urban and rural areas characterized by distinct ethnic or cultural groups.
18. Participating in the activities of the college *International Relations Club.*
19. Visiting the U.N. (if possible) and participating in the work of local branches of such organizations as the A.A.U.N.
20. Attending a meeting of a Board of Education (I–IV).
21. Talking with teachers about their work and reactions to it (I–IV).
22. Visiting schools in different socio-economic districts; public and private schools (I–IV).
23. Spending a day with a principal of an elementary or secondary school.
24. Talking with laymen about their concept of the work of the school (I–IV).
25. Attending a PTA meeting or a special meeting of parents and other laymen to discuss the school program and policies (I–IV).

Seminars and Courses

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

ing it about, requires study of materials from a number of fields—history, anthropology, sociology, economics, political science, geography, physical sciences, mathematics, literature and the arts (as expressions of and molders of thinking on these issues), psychology, education, international relations.

It is suggested that a teaching team of three representing the fields of history, political science, and the physical sciences carry major responsibility for the work. For planning of the block, a representative of the arts, economics, mathematics, and education might be added. Other staff would be on call either as resource persons for work with students or in supplying materials, as would the members of the planning group.

Major Issues in a World Society (IV)

This seminar, a smaller time block, is designed to help the student integrate his previous study of basic problems and situations faced by the individual growing up in our society. Its purpose is to provide opportunity for high-level reflective thinking about the problems and situations which are central in the establishment of a world society and for further clarification of a personal set of values.

III. Working Professionally with Children, Colleagues, and Community Personnel

Bio-social Development of the Individual and the Selection and Guidance of Experiences (II)

This block is designed (1) to develop further self-understanding, (2) to build

Seminars and Courses

meanings essential to understanding the interrelationships between the developing organism and the surrounding social conditions through which it learns and is modified, and (3) to see what the changing organism and the nature of the learning process mean for the selection and guidance of learning experiences.

The work as it contributes to the student's self-understanding and to his understanding of the growth and development of children and youth utilizes materials from human biology, human growth and development, sociology, health, and psychology in dealing with situations relating to:

The human life span: the social and biological factors which influence the nature and quality of the individual life cycle
The ecology of healthful living
The socialization of the individual: the democratic co-operative approach to effective group living

What the bio-social development of children and youth means for the kinds of learning experiences which should be provided through the home, school, and community is an essential and integral part of this block. Materials from the fields of educational philosophy and psychology are also needed as the student considers what the changing organism and the nature of learning mean for the selection of his own experiences, and for the selection and guidance of the experiences of children for whom he is responsible as a teacher or parent:

What are the essentials of a high quality learning experience

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

1. Observing and participating with children and youth in a variety of situations—schools, Boy Scouts, playgrounds, recreational centers, in the public library, on the street.
2. Noting differences among children and youth of the same ages, through a study of pupil cumulative records.
3. Observing children from different sub-cultures—what this means for development and for needed experiences.
4. Teaching a Sunday School class.
5. Accompanying a Visiting Teacher on home visits.
6. Working with a club group.
7. Using the summer to work at a children's camp.

Seminars and Courses

- What do these principles mean for the selection of learning experiences for different individuals and groups
- What is the essential nature of effective guidance of learning experiences

It is suggested that the teaching team of four be composed of a representative from the fields of biology, sociology, educational psychology, and curriculum.

Designing the Curriculum for Elementary-School Children, Secondary-School Youth (III)

This block is differentiated for prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers. Each section is designed to provide the student opportunity to apply his previous study of the qualities essential in a learning experience to the nature of the total range of experience which should make up the curriculum, and in looking at the many problems involved in:

- Determining the organizing focus of the curriculum
- Determining the scope and sequence of experiences which are to make up the curriculum
- Organizing a day's work (program making)
- Co-operative planning of experiences with learners (and pre-planning by the teacher)
- Evaluating pupil growth

For the prospective elementary-school teacher responsible for all or the major part of the educational program, the

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

1. As an integral part of this block of work each student will participate as an assistant to a teacher in an elementary or secondary school. It is suggested that he work in two different schools and with pupils of different ages. The number of weeks spent in the first laboratory situation would be determined by the opportunities afforded in relation to the student's needs (III).

   Each of the laboratory situations will serve as a resource for the student in which he can see current practices relating to the area under discussion in the block. Each student will use the laboratory situation in a way and in an amount best suited to his needs.

2. Using and contributing to the *Curriculum Materials Bureau* in which a wide range of instructional materials are brought together.

Seminars and Courses	*Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests*
greater time allotment is provided to give consideration to problems relating to: Guiding learning experiences in various areas and through using a variety of techniques (discussion, work periods, skill-building activities) Selecting and using instructional materials For the student who plans to work in a secondary school this block would give attention to the first group of problem areas as they apply to providing essential unity in the high-school curriculum, to looking at the total nature and scope of curriculum experiences of secondary youth, and movements toward the development of core experiences. The specific problems of selection and guidance of experiences in a particular instructional field are considered in guided elective courses in the student's field or fields of specialization. Perhaps the work of these blocks can be guided best by staff members having special competence in curriculum, sociology, and human growth and development.	3. Operating a movie projector or film strip for a class group in an elementary or secondary school. 4. Accompanying a group of children or high-school youth on a field trip. 5. Contributing to and interpreting pupil records.
Working with Colleagues and Laymen in Developing a Total Educational Program (III)	
In this block prospective elementary and secondary-school teachers work together (1) to see the educational program as a whole, (2) to see the interrelations among the various parts of the program and what is involved in working co-operatively with colleagues and	As a part of this block each student will participate in two different situations as an assistant to a teacher in an elementary or secondary school: 1. The first contact will be with a high school for elementary majors

Seminars and Courses

administration, and (3) to look at ways of working with parents and other laymen on school problems. Consideration will be given to situations and problems relating to:

- Providing continuity of experience and relating the several parts of the educational program
- Working co-operatively on problems of curriculum development
- The role of the administration; the teacher's part in administration
- Interpreting the schools to the public
- Lay participation in curriculum development
- Participating in professional organizations

This block might be developed by a team composed of staff representing curriculum, sociology, and communications.

Student Teaching and Seminar (IV)—(Working Full Time with a Group of Pupils)

The first semester of the fourth year affords opportunity to work full time in an elementary or secondary school under guidance. Gradually the student assumes increasing responsibility for the total range of the teacher's activities, including work with children, participation in faculty meetings and faculty committees, work with parents, activities of the school in the community. The seminar deals with problems which are met by the student in student teaching and helps him to further refine his educational principles.

Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests

and with an elementary school for prospective high-school teachers.

2. The second will be in a school representing the student's professional choice—either one of the schools in which he worked during the first semester or a different school.

Here again, the length of time spent in each will be determined by the needs of the particular student. The first contact is designed to develop some understanding of the total educational program; the second, to provide opportunity to become acquainted with the administrative and other professional activities which are a necessary part of the total school enterprise (III).

Seminars and Courses	*Illustrative Related Direct Experiences to Meet Individual Needs and Interests*
American Education in a World Society (IV)	
This seminar comes in the last semester of college work. It is designed to provide the student an opportunity to reflect on his previous work to further clarify his thinking and his convictions about: The role of the school in a changing, democratic society Present strengths and weaknesses of educational programs Educational principles (philosophical values and psychological concepts) that should govern his action Plans for continuing personal and professional growth	1. Individual needs will be met in a variety of ways. Some students may profit by observing an artist teacher. Others may desire specific kinds of direct experience with children, youth, or adults. These experiences may be designed to overcome a weakness or to further develop a particular strength (IV). 2. Participating in professional meetings and conventions. 3. Writing professional articles.

IV. GUIDED ELECTIVES IN GENERAL EDUCATION AND FIELDS OF SPECIALIZATION

Course work and other activities to be selected as electives in general education, as well as those included in the broad fields of concentration, will vary with the individual student and his chosen professional work. Four major guides have been suggested:

> Since the teacher's work touches so many aspects of the culture, his background must be broad as well as deep.
>
> Intensive study in one or two areas contributes to a sense of security for self and of service to others.
>
> The process of maturation suggests that provision should be made for continuing work in general education and for study in fields of specialization over a period of several years.
>
> Courses and out-of-class experiences are selected with reference to the student's needs and interests on the one hand, and on the other, the demands of society and the profession.

The first two guides point to the need for broad fields of concentration as well as for intensive work in an area. The last two suggest the need to consider both general education and specialization in the selection of guided electives, and that both courses and out-of-class experiences need to be considered as possible electives. Perhaps the meaning of that part of the curriculum allocated to "guided electives in general education and areas of specialization" can best be seen through several programs designed for students with different professional goals. The illustrations show only guided electives and non-course activities.

FOUR-YEAR PROGRAM: GUIDED ELECTIVES AND NON-COURSE ACTIVITIES OF A STUDENT MAJORING IN ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL EDUCATION

(All work in general education contributes
to the specialization of this student)

STUDENT A—Special interest in the social sciences in high school; plays piano
and has been member of glee club; financial plans adequate

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
Non-class Activities	College Chorus	→	→	→
	Communications Clinic (improve reading speed and comprehension)	→ (as children's receptionist)		
		Student Council representative	Representative on all-college curriculum committee	→
	Swimming	→	→ and Folk Dancing	→
Guided Electives in General Education			Applied Mathematics (3) * Introduction to Photography (2)	Literature for Leisure (3) Contemporary Religion (3)
Guided Electives in Specialization		Literature of American History (3) World Geography and Geopolitics (6)	Children's Literature (3) Advanced Communication—Mass Media and Art Forms (6) Communications Clinic (3) (working with children who have reading problems) Science Problems in Conservation (3)	Far Eastern Backgrounds and Outlooks (4)
Summer Experience	Work experience in office of public utility in home town (related to class study of power resources as a critical social problem)	Counselor in children's camp	Assistant to public-school teacher on "See Your Country" travel trip with ten sixth-graders	

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* Numbers in parentheses indicate semester hours credit.

FOUR-YEAR PROGRAM: GUIDED ELECTIVES AND NON-COURSE ACTIVITIES OF A STUDENT MAJORING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES (SECONDARY)

(The two-year sequence in general education—*Social, Economic, Political Problems in World Cultures*—is directly related to this student's specialization)

STUDENT B—An "average" college freshman; upper class background; grew up in a medium-sized city; no physical handicaps; needs a part-time job to offset anticipated loss of income during summer travel following junior year.

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
Non-class Activities	Intramural baseball	→		
	International Relations Club	→	→	→
	Part-time job in a supermarket	Part-time job in college library	→ (audio-visual section)	
		Representative to Student Council	Committee Chairman—Student Council	Vice-president of Student Council
		Work with community group—Community Chest Drive		Work on community fund-raising campaign for recreation center
Guided Electives in General Education			Group Dynamics (3) •	Modern Philosophies (3)

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FOUR-YEAR PROGRAM: GUIDED ELECTIVES AND NON-COURSE ACTIVITIES OF A STUDENT MAJORING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES (SECONDARY) *(cont.)*

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
Guided Electives in Specialization		Social Psychology (3) American and Comparative Governments (6)	Special study of theme: "The Individual and the Group in a Dynamic Society" History of Western Civilization (interdivisional course—social studies and the humanities) (12) World Geography and Geopolitics (6) Work with non-partisan citizens' group studying the local government (3)	Economics (3) Directed Research and Writing (on chosen theme) (4)
Summer Experience	Farm work in T.V.A. area	Counselor at camp sponsored by a settlement house	Travel in Europe with major attention given the Scandinavian countries	

* Numbers in parentheses indicate semester hours credit.

FOUR-YEAR PROGRAM: GUIDED ELECTIVES AND NON-COURSE ACTIVITIES OF A STUDENT MAJORING IN MATHEMATICS AND MINORING IN PHYSICAL SCIENCE

(The major in mathematics or a foreign language gives the greatest programming difficulty since a limited amount of the work in general education bears directly on advanced work in these fields of specialization.)

Student C—Excellent high-school record; special interest in mathematics; took high-school electives in physical sciences.

	1st Year	2nd Year	3rd Year	4th Year
Non-class Activities	Swimming	→	College swimming team	→
	Work in college radio station (on technical aspects of broadcasting)	→		
		Work with community group on annual Community Chest Drive	Public Affairs Forum	→
				Teaching "driver education" in local high school
Guided Electives in General Education				
Guided Electives in Specialization		*Major field:* Mathematical Analysis (6) * Social and Commercial Uses of Mathematics (3)	*Major field:* Higher Algebra (4) Calculus (8) Modern College Geometry (4) *Minor field:* Chemistry (8)	*Minor field:* Physics (8) Radio Communications (2)
Summer Experience	Cashier in supermarket	Boys camp—teaching responsibility for special interest groups in electronics and photography	Work as bus driver delivering new school buses	

* Numbers in parentheses indicate semester hours credit.

The foregoing projected programs are illustrative only. Each is built with reference to a student's particular needs. In fact it may be necessary and desirable in the case of the student who plans to teach a foreign language to start work in the language in the freshman year and relate it to the general skills of communication. For this student the work in *Communicating Thought and Feeling* would be taken later than for most students and accordingly would continue into the junior year. This would mean transferring some of the hours of work in areas of specialization from the junior to the freshman year. The hours in general education scheduled for all students in the first two years would, for the language major, continue as required courses in general education in the junior year. When the curriculum is planned with reference to the particular student, modifications will need to be made within the proposed sequence just as a good teacher varies work within a course because of the particular student group. Providing for differing abilities, backgrounds, and interests may also indicate variation in student load or extended time in some instances. This would be considered by the student and his adviser during the initial development of a long-view plan of work and at the periodic re-planning of activities.

Designing the Curriculum in Smaller Blocks: A Second Proposal

As already indicated, some college faculties may feel that closely related life situations should be grouped in somewhat smaller blocks and with fewer staff members involved in teaching the same course. The following curriculum design is one such proposal. It is presented in chart form by years without a descriptive statement of content and experiences to be included in each course. The previous discussion of the general nature of the problems and situations faced by the citizen-teacher applies here. It will be noted that no essential change has been made in the work of the last two years, and the same amount of time has been allotted to guided electives in general education and fields of specialization. Several major differences, however, are evident. First the work relating to "socio-economic-political situations" is more completely separated from "understanding and dealing with the natural environment and technological resources," although it is important that the student see the interrelationships and interdependencies. The student's interest in "education as a social force in a democracy" is also made

PLAN II

Projected Smaller Unit Curriculum for Prospective Elementary and Secondary-School Teachers with Limited Teaching by Staff Teams

1st Year	S.H.	2nd Year	S.H.	3rd Year	S.H.	4th Year	S.H.
Personal Development	3–	Bio-social Development of the Individual	3–	Designing the Curriculum for		Student Teaching and Seminar	15–
				Elementary-School Children	8–		
Education as a Social Force	–2	Growth and Development and the Selection and Guidance of Experiences	–3	Secondary-School Youth	4–	American Education in a World Society	–3
Communication Skills	4–			Working with Colleagues and Laymen in Developing a Total Educational Program	–4		
Communicating Thought and Feeling through Literature and Other Arts	–5	→	4–4				
Understanding and Dealing with the Natural Environment and Technological Resources	5–5	→	3–				
Social, Economic, and Political Problems in World Cultures	3–3	→	3–3			Major Issues in a World Society	–4
		Guided Electives in Areas of Specialization	3–6	Guided Electives in General Education and Specialization		Guided Electives in General Education and Specialization	–10
				Elementary Majors	8–12		
				Secondary Majors	12–12		
	15–15		16–16		16–16		15–17
Summer in Industrial Experience		Summer in Children's Camp		Summer in Travel			

a separate area of study. In like manner the "skills of communication" have been separated from "communication of thought and feeling through literature and the arts." The "bio-social development of the individual" does not include the consideration of learning principles and the implications of development for learning experiences. The second type of difference is the importance placed upon the first-semester course in which the student is helped toward self-understanding and the clarification of personal and professional needs and goals. In this design such understanding must come primarily through advisement, with some provision for laboratory activities.

Perhaps it cannot be said too often that any structure or organization of the curriculum is of value only as it facilitates the realization of desired goals. This statement applies to each of the projected designs. It is believed that this proposed design will contribute to working meaningfully with students, and will help to reduce the number of different and separate courses (sometimes as many as eight) with which the student struggles simultaneously in some curricula.

Modifying Individual Courses: A Third Proposal

First steps toward implementing the proposed curriculum guides may be through the modification of individual courses. With consideration given to the same problems and situations faced by the citizen-teacher, a third proposal is projected. It also is presented in chart form by years rather than through descriptive course statement, the reader being referred to the more detailed discussion of the first proposal. Here, too, the last two years are essentially the same, the assumption being that many colleges are already working in larger blocks in professional courses dealing with curriculum problems. Basically, this plan differs from Plan II in the development of single courses around closely related continuing life situations.

Study of any one or all of the illustrative designs suggests specific problems which will need to be met in a particular college. The task of curriculum development is a co-operative one in which all persons engaged in any aspect of teacher education—the teacher working in academic fields as well as the teacher of professional subjects—have a right and a responsibility to bring about needed curriculum change. As college groups continue to give serious attention to curriculum development in teacher education much better programs than

PLAN III

PROJECTED "SINGLE COURSE" CURRICULUM FOR PROSPECTIVE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

1st Year	S.H.	2nd Year	S.H.	3rd Year	S.H.	4th Year	S.H.
A. *Using and Developing Personal Resources*							
Maintaining Personal Health	3–	(Provision for further use and development of personal resources through class experiences and special out-of-class activities)					
Personal Development	3–						
Better Speaking and Writing	3–	Understanding and Enjoying Varied Forms of Aesthetic Expression	4–				
Group Dynamics and Discussion in Human Affairs	–3	Art Forms in Contemporary Society	–2				
Analysis, Interpretation, and Use of Mass Media	–3	Enjoying Music	–2				
		Literature for Leisure and as a Social Force	–2				
B. *Dealing with the Natural Environment and Technological Resources*							
Understanding and Dealing with the Natural Environment	3–5	Using Technological Resources Effectively and for Positive Ends	3–				

PLAN III, CONTINUED

C. Working with Social-Economic-Political Structures and Forces			
Contemporary Social Problems 4– Understanding Government and the Problems of Democracy –3	Contemporary Economic Problems 3–		Major Issues in a World Society –4
D. Working Professionally with Children, Colleagues, and Community Personnel			
Education as a Social Force in a Democracy –2	Human Growth and Development and the Learning Process 3–4	Designing the Curriculum for Elementary-School Children 8– Secondary-School Youth 4– Working with Colleagues and Laymen in Developing the Total Educational Program –4	Student Teaching and Seminar 15– American Education in a World Society –3
E. Guided Electives in General Education and Fields of Specialization			
	Guided Electives in Areas of Specialization 3–6	Guided Electives in General Education and Specialization Elementary Majors 8–12 Secondary Majors 12–12	Guided Electives in General Education and Specialization –10
16–16	16–16	16–16	15–17
Summer in Industrial Experience	Summer in a Youth or Children's Camp	Summer in Travel	

those projected in this chapter will emerge. It is out of careful thought and experimentation that the work of teacher education will move forward.

Some Other Considerations in Bringing About Desired Curriculum Change

Some changes suggested by study of the program of teacher education relate directly to the teacher-preparing institution itself, while others involve individuals and groups outside the immediate college or university. Questions relating to both groups are considered in the following pages.

Can Teachers Be Prepared Adequately in a Four-Year Program?

The problem of length of the college program is more than just a question of time for adequate preparation of the prospective teacher. First, a decision must be made regarding the desirability of giving credit for all work engaged in. It is evident from the illustrative related activities outlined on preceding pages that the student will engage in certain significant out-of-class learning experiences which are not directly a part of any course and for which he may receive no official college credit. For example, work in the *Communications Laboratory and Clinic* which started as a part of the course in communications may lead a student to continue work in the laboratory long after the course is completed. Another student through the course *Communicating Thought and Feeling* may find that he has special ability in the area of creative writing and may participate as a member of the *Creative Writing Club* for several years, without receiving college credit. All students give time and careful thought to planning their program of activities. With guidance this can be a very significant learning experience, especially for the prospective teacher. Yet no credit is allotted for this experience, nor is credit assigned for recreational and leisure activities which are an essential part of every student's college life. What this may mean in terms of building attitudes toward service and continuing search for new insight and understanding is important.

Further, there is the problem of helping the student to build a balanced pattern of living. As a regular member of the teaching profession, he must be able to carry his full professional responsibilities and at the same time engage in those personal and social activities which provide a balanced life and which give the resilience, vitality, and aliveness so essential to the creative teacher. Will the student best learn the value of this kind of life if he enters only upon college activities for which credit is assigned? This decision is fundamental and must be made by each college faculty.

Second, and more directly related to the time factor, is the problem of how to keep the total load of class activities, class-related experiences, and other individual learning experiences from becoming too heavy for the student. This is a question which can best be answered by a particular college and for individual students. It is affected by the way in which instructors look upon certain experiences of college life and whether they see them as important aspects of classwork or as important guided electives. The load will be less heavy if, for example, they assign such experiences as observing children or youth, working on a student committee to re-design the student lounge, or being an active participant in the Public Affairs Forum as a part of course work as they would assign study in the college library. It will also be less heavy if guided electives are conceived as including out-of-class experiences as well as courses. The load-factor is further conditioned by the general structure of the curriculum which dictates the number of different areas of study on which the student works at any one time, and by the number of hours which must be spent in class to receive course credit. It is still further influenced by the quality of class instruction and its meaningfulness for the student.

No single answer can be given to the length of time needed for the preparation of the citizen-teacher who effectively and creatively translates into action the range of basic ideas and generalizations with which he must deal, but two general statements can be made regarding the length of the teacher-education curriculum. There is reason to believe that as programs become more functional and as they more completely implement what is known about learning, much more can be attained through a four-year curriculum than is currently being realized in many colleges. It is also recognized that as the crucial function of education in a democratic society is translated into the significant responsibilities of the teacher it becomes increasingly difficult to prepare adequately for such leadership within a four-year period. For example, foreign language, which has not been included in the proposed programs except for students majoring in the teaching of languages, takes on new significance for the teacher in a one-world society.

To provide complete and thorough study of some of the continuing life situations requires an increase in time allotted. When reflection and generalization, as well as translation into action, are held to be basic in the scholarship required of the teacher, work cannot be hurried. Then, too, there is much to be valued in providing continuity from pre- to in-service activities and in assuring the gradual induction which is made possible through an internship program. Such a program provides for continuing study as the teacher enters upon his first complete professional responsibility—such study to grow out of his work as a teacher under the joint guidance of those from the college who know him well and those who know the school and its problems.

It is necessary for each college faculty to study its own students—to examine time schedules, to secure student reactions, to determine strengths and limitations of recent graduates, to know through follow-up which college experiences are found to be of great value to the student as citizen and teacher as well as those apparently unused.

Can the Desired Curriculum Be Developed in a Multi-purpose College?

Like so many of life's problems, rather than there being a "yes" or "no" answer to the question of whether the suggested curriculum can be developed in the multi-purpose college, there is need in any type of college to keep clear-cut goals steadfastly in mind and to work toward their achievement by meeting each difficulty and obstacle as it arises. Certain complexities in developing the program of teacher education in a multi-purpose institution do not arise in the single-purpose institution. Yet even in a teachers college there are problems to be solved and definite limitations to be overcome. One such limitation is the lack of opportunity for the prospective teacher to work directly with individuals representing the varied points of view and vocational interests which he will meet in his work with parents and other community laymen. When this is true, steps need to be taken to provide such contacts through field experiences, which would not be the case in the multi-purpose college.

In the liberal arts college or in any other type of multi-purpose institution which includes teacher education as well as other programs, one essential is for all staff members who work with prospective teachers clearly to identify the role which education must play in our society and what this means for teacher competence. There may be no greater differences of viewpoint among these staff members, however, than among those working in the college committed only to the preparation of teachers. A search for points of agreement will produce results of value both to the college staff member working in the academic fields and to his colleague in the field of professional education. Each needs to understand the other.

Another area of co-operative study important to the development of the desired program of teacher education is that of college teaching. While it is especially important for the prospective teacher to experience creative teaching, this is also desired for students having other vocational interests. Differences in the quality of teaching will probably be as great among staff members of the single-purpose institution as among those of the multi-purpose college. Important steps toward achieving goals can be taken through co-operative study of ways of increasing teaching effectiveness.

An aspect of the teacher-education program, which at times is more difficult to realize in the multi-purpose college, is the professional treatment of subject matter in the academic fields and the differentiation of assignments to meet the special interests and needs of the prospective teacher. Special problems must be dealt with in the liberal arts and state college in which students having varied vocational interests are in the same class. Only in the very large college or university is it possible to have separate class sections for prospective teachers. And, if this is done in every field, the limitation of the single-purpose institution, referred to earlier, is encountered. Some staff members will find it congenial to their way of working to show how the content under discussion can be used in teaching as well as in other areas represented by the occupational goals of a class group. Others will find the concept challenging but difficult to implement. The relating of an academic field and professional areas will not be accepted by some as their responsibility. Each college will need to discover ways to meet the problem in the particular form in which it appears. For example, a member of an academic department or division and a member of the education department might teach as a team. In another college, where this may not be practicable, the professional interests and needs of the students may be met through a strong program of individual advisement. Or it may be wise to introduce an integrating seminar, as a part of the work of the first years of college, in which a member of the professional education staff helps students to relate their work to their vocational goals.

Reference should be made to one other common problem, namely, the selection of content which is truly important to the citizen-teacher from a vast body of organized knowledge. As college groups modify their work in academic areas to utilize the findings of experimentation in the general education movement, this problem will be met more effectively. Similar study should be made of other questions which arise as a particular type of institution attempts to modify its program to achieve the desired goals of teacher education.

How Is the Program Affected by the Size of the Institution?

Like the type of institution, the size of the college is neither an unmixed blessing nor a complete handicap. In favor of the smaller college are more intimate acquaintance with the student body, the integration of experience which comes through the instructor's responsibility for a wider range of work, and the greater ease of communication that makes it possible for all members of the staff to understand the total range of the student's experiences. Special provisions must be established in the larger institution to realize these values. In the larger college or university, on the positive side, are the greater resources available within the staff and the opportunity to work more intensively in selected areas. The last named may be a positive factor if the individual staff member is concerned about relating his work to the total program; it can as easily be a limitation when specialization leads to myopia. These values can often be realized in the smaller institution by using community resources of a personal and material nature.

Perhaps more important than size itself is the matter of providing a staff-student ratio appropriate to carrying the suggested program into action. Experimentation and study are needed to determine what is a realistic staff load when the curriculum includes all experiences for which the college has responsibility. What is the time required to prepare for and to guide varied out-of-class activities? Is more time demanded for preparation when several staff members teach as a team or are there other compensating factors? How allocate time for the supervision of student teaching and other laboratory experiences? Is the problem one of realigning efforts as student learning experiences other than classroom teaching are made an integral part of staff activities? These and other related questions merit careful study.

Will Certification Requirements Be Met?

The teacher-education programs proposed in the preceding pages will meet most state certification requirements. There will be need, however, to clarify with state officers the way in which the usual separate course and point requirements are met in the block program and through study of continuing problems faced by the citizen-teacher. Several of the usual specific requirements for certification may well be satisfied in a single block course. Efforts to relate the basic state standards to the competencies which the program of teacher education is designed to achieve may lead to new ways of expressing certification requirements. Perhaps some state departments will be ready to experiment with qualitative standards rather than semester or quarter hours of credit. Each college, then, will need to indicate the essential nature of course and out-of-course experiences designed to help the student develop the specific group of competencies.

In turn, such steps might lead to a quite different concept of certification than the one which now prevails. Perhaps the certification function should reside in the teacher-preparing institution itself and be based upon careful study of cumulative records showing the growth of the prospective teacher. This would make it possible to base certification upon actual evidence rather than upon the present criterion of having passed a given course. Completion of required courses does not assure competence to apply the basic concepts and materials of the course in everyday living as a citizen and a teacher. The function of the state department would then change from that of a central office which checks the credentials of a particular candidate for the teaching profession and from time to time reviews the program of teacher education offered by a particular college. Instead, a major responsibility of the state office would be to visit a college and appraise its work; to observe the projected curriculum and to see the college students in action. Study of the whole certification function and procedure is mandatory if programs of teacher education are to be changed.

Putting the curriculum to the test of whether it really develops young men and women willing and able to act effectively in the leadership role required of today's teacher is a major obligation of colleges and universities which have accepted the responsibility of preparing teachers. It is to this end that curricula are designed, college teaching is improved, personnel services are provided, and administration serves.

8

COLLEGE TEACHING AND TEACHER EDUCATION *

The college student learns what he experiences. Is he learning the value of democratic planning or is he learning through his experiences that "the teacher knows best"? Is he learning the value of a warm and friendly classroom atmosphere or is he merely a name in a roll book? Are his experiences teaching him that the textbook is the chief authority or is he learning to use many sources and to think for himself? This chapter looks at the work of the college teacher who makes a positive contribution to the desired teacher-education program.

Teaching Is the Central Function of the College Teacher Who Works with Prospective Teachers

All experience educates or miseducates. Whether the student's experiences are fully educative depends in no small measure upon the degree to which his college teachers in their own teaching exemplify sound educational principles. That "one teaches as he is taught rather than as he is taught to teach," although a commonplace, holds more than a modicum of truth. It illustrates the value of direct experience. As noted in earlier discussion, the student who experiences the ways in which his college teacher differentiates assignments and the other means he uses in providing for individual differences among students will begin to see this fundamental learning principle as something more than a theoretical nicety. The actual experiences which students have under the guidance of their teachers play a significant part in determining their convictions and practices.

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Telling Isn't Teaching

College teaching, like the teaching of children and youth expected of the prospective teacher, is much more than merely transmitting knowledge, and telling is not the best way to do even that. When the goal is ". . . to help students to learn how to use their college education for the rest of their lives, and to enjoy life more because of what we have been able to teach them," [1] the role of the college teacher becomes that of a guide stimulating and helping the student to relate, to interpret critically, and in terms of his needs and goals to use knowledge as an instrument of social usefulness. Teaching then becomes the process of guiding learning. The focus is on what is happening to the student—what he is learning, and whether he is learning with efficiency and economy.

So conceived, teaching becomes much more than telling. The teacher, as guide, has various responsibilities, such as:

1. Helping students identify needs and problems
2. Developing new interests and concern for new needs and areas of work
3. Making available resources for learning and guiding the use of them
4. Making available and guiding experiences for learning, including
    a. Identification of common purposes
    b. Co-operative planning of experiences
    c. Providing for individual differences
    d. Using procedures appropriate to the situation (the students and the goals to be achieved)
    e. Helping students relate their experiences
    f. Helping students arrive at sound generalizations
5. Providing opportunity to use what is learned
6. Helping students evaluate their growth
7. Helping students understand the nature of the learning process as it relates to themselves and others

As the college teacher counsels with individual students, teaches a class group, or works with several students on a committee in carrying out a college responsibility, he is guided by the same basic principles of effective learning. Those identified in Chapter III and used as guides throughout this writing are illustrative:

1. Individuals respond to experiences to accomplish some definite purpose of their own. What is to be learned must be related to purposes recognized by the student as worth while.

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[1] Harold Taylor in *Improving College Instruction* (Fred J. Kelly, ed.). Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1951, p. 56.

2. Individuals are different and, therefore, no single set of experiences is equally productive for all students.
3. Learning will be more nearly adequate if the situation in which it is learned is similar to those situations in which it may be used.
4. Real learning results in changed behavior. This is achieved when individuals have sufficient experiences to generalize from them and to use appropriate ideas and behavior in varied situations.

Full implementation of these four guides, alone, would do much to provide high quality learning experiences in the teacher-education program.

Teaching-Scholars Are Needed in Colleges Preparing Teachers

The foregoing discussion suggests that teaching requires qualities quite different from those most useful to the research specialist. Good teaching necessarily includes some research activity, but technical research is not its central purpose. The teacher is first a consumer and interpreter of research. He seeks knowledge of the findings of research, discovers relationships among those findings, subjects them to critical analysis, and through skillful interpretation helps others and himself to understand their implications for use in life situations. But the teacher also engages in research and experimentation as he makes the needed continuous and systematic evaluation of his work. He needs qualitative evidence of the progress of his students and of the results of new and different ways of working with them. Then, too, there are problems in his teaching field which may require study and the development of new materials. For all teachers this will mean experimentation and action research;[2] for some it will mean advanced research in fields of specialization.

For the college teacher of teachers, in addition to scholarship in teaching fields, there is need for scholarship in professional education. This is scholarship which, through the study of the fields of education and teacher education, appreciates the importance of teaching, seeks for greater understanding and insight into the needs of students and for ways to help meet those needs, has fundamental respect for young people, and derives satisfaction in helping them achieve their goals.

If we hope to have such teachers in pre-service teacher-preparing institutions, it becomes evident that new values must be placed upon excellence in teaching at the college level. Productive teaching, rather than research and publication only, needs to become the major criterion of advancement. Nor can good teaching automatically be assumed and only writing and research be examined in relation to promotion. Only when all three are considered may we hope to have college teachers whose first concern is students rather than subject matter, and who make teaching their central responsibility.

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[2] Corey, Stephen M., *Action Research to Improve School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.

The Focus Is on the Student

The psychological bases of learning make the student central in the teaching-learning process. Only as the college teacher continues to study his students in order to understand their thinking and feeling, their needs and concerns, can he provide with any degree of assurance the kinds of experiences which have meaning for them and through which they can be helped to achieve needed learnings. The tragic waste when college teachers fail in this responsibility is suggested by the following statement:

> . . . Any college teacher who has taken the pains to inquire knows that college Freshmen have a vast fund of energy to spend on learning and great expectations when they come to us. One of the saddest and most wasteful things about college education in America is the number of students for whom the first year is an anti-climax because we, their teachers, fail to pay attention to the questions they are ready and eager to ask us. We are too busy with our pre-fabricated plans and our own answers to the questions we think they ought to ask.[3]

Although the reference in the preceding and following paragraph is to college freshmen, the authors emphasize a challenge which must be a part of the work of every teacher with every group of students in each college year, in studying their changing needs and aspirations:

> . . . Freshmen coming to college are in a wonderfully receptive state—and a very vulnerable one. . . . They have their first opportunity to assert independence, to take a stand as an adult. They are about seventeen years old and in the latter stages of their adolescence. They are dominated by feelings of adventure, of rebellion, of fear, of anxiety, of expectation. The enthusiasm and energy which they are able to pour into activities which challenge their imagination can and should be harnessed in the interest of learning. . . . It is seldom possible to force these young people to be what we think they should be—let us discover, rather, what they are and what they need and want. All of them are interested

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[3] National Society for the Study of Education, *General Education,* Fifty-first Yearbook, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952, p. 174.

in their own identity. They ask, "Who am I? What kind of person am I?" Again, they are concerned with the continuing conflict between freedom and independence because the desire for independence and the fear of it is, in some measure, in all of them. They are anxious to discover their own strengths, and most are willing to face the fact of their weaknesses. They are able, for the first time, to think intensely and decisively of possible directions for their lives. We should, therefore, at this point be ready to help them test the validity of their interests and to discover new interests. Their vision is not limited to self, but they are anxious for help in thinking about the confusions of the world they live in and what they can do to clean them up.[4]

Knowing the Individual Student

Whenever a college tries to adapt its program of experience and instructional methods to individuals, the need for continuing study of the student body becomes evident. Any program which is concerned with the balanced development of the individual—physical, social, intellectual, emotional—must be based on data regarding backgrounds, abilities, concerns and problems, interests and goals, dominant attitudes and values. The requisite understanding of a student comes through a process of observation and accumulation of information in which the student should share.

Understanding the student through counseling.—To understand the desires and motives of the college student, someone on the staff must know him well. This person, who may be called the general or major adviser, may work with the student over the four college years. Like the personal physician, he gathers pertinent background data about the student and adds to the record to show growth and changing needs over the years. Others who work with the student contribute data also, but it is the special responsibility of the adviser to see that all pertinent data are gathered and co-ordinated. As a counselor the adviser's role needs to be threefold. First, he builds personal relationships which give the student security in discussing personal and professional problems of whatever magnitude. Second, he shares with the student the changing record of his growth and helps him plan next steps accordingly. Third, he shares his understanding with other teachers who are working with the particular student but who do not know him as well nor over as long a period of time. This active two-way relationship between the adviser and other teachers working with the student is basic to the understanding each teacher needs to make his teaching as significant as possible.

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[4] *Ibid.*, p. 175.

This threefold advisory relationship and other aspects of guidance and counseling are discussed in later chapters. It seems desirable at this point merely to comment briefly upon the adviser's second function of planning with the student. This might be thought of as "long view planning" in which the student and his adviser together (1) set up goals and purposes to direct his work and (2) select courses and other experiences considered most helpful in achieving these goals. Such a long-view plan, started at the time of the student's entrance to college, continues to grow and to be modified throughout the years. The first plan is developed as far as the abilities of the student permit him, *with guidance,* to recognize his needs and to visualize the activities in which he will engage as a citizen-teacher. As new problems and new areas of investigation are seen, replanning is necessary. Plans are also modified in the light of the student's growth. Conferences between student and adviser aim at increasing clarity of goals, a longer view ahead, and greater particularizing of detail. Stated somewhat crudely at first, the concerns of the student help him to focus upon benefits to be derived from courses and from other experiences. He enters upon a course or other activity to meet a particular need rather than to satisfy a set of college requirements.

The following excerpts illustrate parts of the initial long-view plan of a student enrolled in a college working along lines suggested by Plan I in Chapter VII. Proposals were made both by the student and his adviser. The first statement in each section of the first column suggests the area of concern. Some of the conversation and discussion which led to its identification is given in parentheses. The second column, which would not be included in a student's long-view plan, is presented so that the reader may know something of the background of Janet Doe as found in her high-school record. In the regular student plan this column would be replaced (and the second and third columns reversed) by one in which a record of progress in carrying out proposed activities would be indicated.

Excerpts from Long-View Plan of Janet Doe

(First Semester—Freshman Year)

Problems and Areas of Study	*Background Data*	*Needed Experiences*	*Planned for*
A. *Developing Personal Resources* 1. Physical and Mental Health	Health examination and medical records show excellent condition		

Problems and Areas of Study	*Background Data*	*Needed Experiences*	*Planned for*
9/15/55 a. Interest in sports program	Has been active in high-school sports program—basketball, hockey, swimming	Participation in recreational and sports activities	Each year
9/15/55 b. How develop emotional control in times of stress (e.g., "How stand by what I believe and not antagonize people? How keep from arguing?")	Records make indirect reference to tendency to argue and to become irritable when under pressure	*Self-Understanding*—individual conferences, Group Advisory Seminar, reading and discussion of function of emotional mechanisms, process of normal personality development	9/55
. . . etc. . . .			
2. Communicating Thought and Feeling			
9/15/55 a. How improve critical thinking (e.g., "What is the meaning of my score on the W-G test taken prior to admission?")	Entrance test score low on Watson-Glaser "Critical Thinking Appraisal"	Gather additional evidence by:	
		a. Reading editorial page of daily paper	9/55
		b. Reflecting on bases for and consistency of own statements in papers and class discussion.	
9/15/55 b. Interest in writing poetry	Several selections submitted with admission data are worthy attempts	*Creative Writing Club*	9/55

Excerpts from Long-View Plan of Janet Doe (continued)

Problems and Areas of Study	*Background Data*	*Needed Experiences*	*Planned for*
11/21/55			
c. Need to increase reading speed and work on retention (e.g., "I can't keep up with reading assignments.")	Placement test shows 50-percentile on Nelson-Denny	Communications Clinic to check on reading habits—a diagnostic test	11/22
. . . etc. . . .			
B. *Social-Economic-Political Forces*			
9/15/55			9/55
a. How to form sound judgments re current social-political issues (e.g., "Students here seem to know so much—they are always talking about politics and things that are happening—I feel 'out of it.' " . . . "You do need to feel comfortable with your peers. Don't you also have a responsibility as a citizen to be informed about current issues?")	Has had high-school courses in: *Government, Problems of Democracy, American History*	*Social, Economic, Political Problems in World Cultures* Regular reading of daily paper and a news magazine	

Problems and Areas of Study	*Background Data*	*Needed Experiences*	*Planned for*
10/15/55 b. How cope effectively with social prejudice (e.g., "Should I join a sorority? My Dad says they are undemocratic and make people 'snobbish.' ")		Talk to several advisers to sorority groups. Observe behavior of students—members and nonmembers	
. . . etc. . . .			
C. *Natural Environment and Technological Resources*			
9/15/55 a. Use of power resources (e.g., "You spoke of concern about current issues. What do you know about the controversy over public vs. private power development?")	Has had high-school courses in: *General Science* *Physics* *Government*	*Social, Economic, Political Problems in World Cultures*	9/55
. . . etc. . . .			
D. *Professional Education*			
9/15/55 a. What is expected of today's teacher (e.g., "How can		*Self-Understanding* "Education as a social force" as developed in *Social, Economic, Political*	9/55 2/56

Excerpts from Long-View Plan of Janet Doe (continued)

Problems and Areas of Study	*Background Data*	*Needed Experiences*	*Planned for*
I know if I have what it takes to teach?")		*Problems in World Cultures*	

. . . etc. . . .

Such a long-view plan affords both student and adviser a chart of the student's program of activities at any one time and cumulatively over the years at college. First experiences with this type of planning require time of both student and adviser, possibly as much as an hour or more in planning initially with a Freshman. Both because of the time factor and to provide continuity for the student it is often desirable that advisers continue with their advisees over the years they are in college. Each adviser then has a limited number of freshmen requiring special help in program planning together with upper classmen who have developed ability to plan their activities and can chart their work over longer periods of time.

The college teacher adds to understanding of the student.—Building on data about his students obtained directly from their advisers or through a study of student records, the college teacher gains added understanding of the student while working with him. This understanding may come from informal social contacts, conferences, class experiences, or committee activities. It may come from observation of the student in varied situations, from autobiographical statements or from other data-gathering instruments used early in a course to inventory the interests and needs of students. In some classes it may be useful to make a problem survey, while in others co-operative planning will provide identification of the problems or interests which the student had in mind in taking the course. Co-operative planning, exchange of ideas through discussion, written reactions to ideas and happenings, observation of the student at work in laboratory situations, observation of resource materials selected and the way they are used—these and other aspects of the teaching-learning situation bring the further understanding of the student which is needed by the college teacher to make his teaching as significant as possible for each student.

Cumulative student records contribute to understanding.—As implied in the preceding paragraphs, knowing the student involves the accumulation of information. This requires records which give an accurate picture of the student in terms of what he is and what he is capable of becoming. The long-view plan developed co-operatively by the student and his adviser is one important part of the student's record. Descriptive statements by the faculty, by employers, by supervising teachers during student teaching and other laboratory experiences, and by committee chairmen; illustrative samples of the student's work in writing or pictorial form; and statements by the student regarding his progress and plans—all are part of the cumulative record.

Such records serve five major purposes. First, they help the student to understand himself. Second, they contribute to better understanding of him by his teachers and others who work with him. Third, such records provide materials important in the evaluation process and in determining the direction in which the student's next experiences should be guided. Fourth, by making known the kinds of activities in which the student has been engaged and his reactions to them, they assist in the articulation of the several parts of the college program as well as between the student's work in high school and college. Cumulative records make a fifth contribution to the prospective teacher in demonstrating through direct experience their value in his future work with children and youth.

What are the essential characteristics of records which make this fivefold contribution? All the significant aspects of growth needed in coping with the continuing problems with which the citizen-teacher will be confronted must be a part of any comprehensive account. To give an accurate picture, both positive and negative aspects of the student's development should be stated. Teachers are at times hesitant to note the limitations of the student because these lacks may be overcome as he develops and, once in the record, there is danger of later misinterpretation. When records are cumulative they show the changes taking places in the student. Further, records are designed as service tools to be used professionally. When there is recognition of the worth of each individual, and when students are central in the planning of college teachers, these personal histories will be used professionally to help students.

Records should be specific and, in so far as possible, objective. Working with human beings, many reactions are unavoidably subjective. Such estimates are rendered increasingly objective by the inclusion of specific incidents and illustrations. Well-selected incidents make it possible for those reading the record to see the student in action and to agree or disagree with the interpretation. All persons concerned with the growth of the college student, including the student himself, should contribute to these records. Likewise, they should be accessible for use, under guidance, by all concerned. Because self-understanding and self-evaluation are aspects important in the life of every individual, the student should participate with his teachers in keeping and using records.

Developing effective student records is as difficult as it is important, especially if the advisory load of a staff member is heavy. Ways need to be found to facilitate the record-keeping process. In some colleges faculty members who have a large number of advisees have a lighter teaching load. Some advisers use personal data sheets which the student is responsible for keeping up to date. An open file in which a student's tests and written work are available to an instructor provides much "peripheral" information about a student's English usage, ways of reasoning, and the like. Much work remains to be done in this area, and the part which students can play needs to be explored.

Working with the Student in Terms of His Individual Needs and Concerns

Knowing about the student is but a first step in effective teaching in which this knowledge is used to guide learning experiences. There is also need for student participation in planning and carrying out experiences and for differentiation to meet individual abilities and interests.

Co-operative planning with students.—Co-operative planning with students of course work and other activities is an important aspect of college teaching which focuses on the student. Only as the student shares in planning his activities can he reveal to the college teacher what he really thinks and feels—his concerns and purposes, and the meaning which situations and ideas have for him. His reactions and proposals are the cues needed in reordering experiences to meet individual needs. Work which is in line with the learner's purposes and which has meaning for him is that in which motivation is strong, effort is vigorous, and from which functional learning results.

At least three other values suggest the need for co-operative planning with the college student. First, co-operative planning is a continuing problem in a democratic society. Through participation in the co-operative study and solution of problems students develop the ability for constructive participation in such activity as a citizen and teacher. Further, the student's education while in college is only the beginning of a continuing program of education for which he must assume responsibility after leaving college. Sharing in the planning and development of his college education builds toward his assuming responsibility for his after-college education. Finally, for the prospective teacher, there is the advantage of experiencing first-hand a way of working which is increasingly becoming an essential part of the elementary and secondary-school program. In a democracy, children and youth also need to learn to plan co-operatively.

To the planning process with students the college teacher brings his best insight as to what is involved in an adequate study of the problem at hand—what kind of experiences would build upon present concerns and provide for next steps in the students' development. For most college teachers it is helpful to jot down in writing a possible unfolding of the experience with learners: the sequence of activities which would seem to be most productive, the essential content needed in carrying out each step, special needs or strengths of individual students which should be taken into account, and instructional materials to facilitate learning. The effectiveness of guidance depends, in no small measure, on how carefully possibilities and alternatives have been thought through by the college teacher prior to co-operative planning with students.

In some plans several weeks of work needed to solve a problem will be outlined, while others will relate to the work of a single day within the larger block. A unit will be planned when a new piece of work is undertaken. This involves identification and delimitation of the problem or situation to be studied, ways of working on the problem, steps to be taken, resources to be used, and responsibilities of individuals and small groups. Daily planning represents the more detailed consideration of a particular part of the unit plan to be carried out on the given day. Co-operative planning for a given class period provides opportunity for guidance which helps students to appraise progress and to foresee the needs of the day and the adjustments which must be made to meet them. This may take only a small amount of time when the larger block plan is clearly in mind.

The ability to engage in this type of co-operative planning will vary according to the students' previous experience. Those who have had an opportunity to share in planning their work in high school will be ready to apply the basic principles of co-operative planning and problem solving to the new situations of the college program. For those who have not had this experience, learning how to plan co-operatively will be an important undertaking in the early years of college. For students not used to this way of working there is need to move slowly. Students whose concept of teaching and of learning is to follow the agenda provided by the instructor may feel that time spent in planning is time wasted. Then, too, whether experienced or inexperienced in co-operative planning, students must not be asked to make proposals in areas for which they do not have some basis for making a judgment. The concept of co-operative planning must at no time permit a "pooling of ignorance." In areas largely unexplored by students, co-operative planning may begin *after* an initial experience in which the college teacher presents and raises questions about one or more situations which have meaning for the students and are within the scope of their background. In areas related to their concerns but for which they have little background, first steps in co-operative planning may be limited to recognizing the need for and making proposals for extensive reading. Further co-operative planning may be advisable only after a period of reading. However, provision is made at any point in class discussion for student reactions and proposals.

Meeting differences in needs and interests.—Within a class group a situation will have different meanings for individual members. There will be differences in insight and in what a student seeks from the particular work. Not all persons will have the same concern and interest to be used as the starting point. It is a part of both the art and the challenge of teaching to provide for these differences through individual and through group work.

To meet individual needs and interests it is necessary to identify them. Through co-operative planning, study of data included in the students' cumulative records, observation of the students in varied situations, and informal contacts, the college teacher is helped to understand the range of interests and abilities represented in his class. He may wish to secure additional data to help him clarify student perceptions and purposes. Information may be gathered by one or more of the following means—student autobiographies, weekly logs, reaction papers on subjects selected by the student, small group conferences, opinions concerning specific situations described orally or in writing. Each provides the instructor some insight into the differences among students as they approach and undertake a given piece of work.

Despite individual differences, some values can best be realized through common experiences. Among these are the ability to work effectively as a group member, which may be developed through situations in which an entire class works on a problem of common concern. Even though the problem or situation is recognized as important by the class group, not all thirty or forty members will be equally interested since the situation will have different meaning for individual students in terms of their maturity and experience. What does this imply for the work of the college teacher? Knowing something of the differences in perception and concern evinced by his students, the college teacher will during the planning stage encourage students to identify and work on aspects of the problem which concern them most. Differentiated assignments and the use of varied resources will further answer the needs of individuals. For example, the student who has special interests in literature may bring the contributions of that field to the study of a particular social question. The student whose outlook is limited may find new interest in a social problem through direct experience with it. The teaching responsibility is one of helping individuals to achieve required competencies through channels best suited to their needs.

For some students major growth from an experience may be in increased skill in working co-operatively. For others it may be ability to defend one's thinking on an issue. For both it may be new insight into the given social problem. That a single area of study will result in different learnings for different students is both inevitable and desirable. The important factor is that the student and his college teacher recognize what is being learned. This is necessary to planning the next learning activities.

At least three other major problems face the college teacher as he tries to meet the differences in interest and ability among his students. The first relates to the extremely heterogeneous group whose members find it difficult to arrive at a common concern. When backgrounds and interests are diverse, it may be useful to have an initial common experience. This initial experience may be a film, a field experience, or a reported incident or event. From this common experience may emerge questions to which all members of the group respond and which they find meaningful. While the student always brings his past experience to his present activities, there are times when his readiness for new learning can best be met by moving directly into unexplored areas. The crucial factor is the way in which the new learning adventure is made meaningful and opportunity is afforded the student to become actively involved (intellectually or overtly) in the area of study.

Another question which at times confronts the college teacher is how to provide adequately for the student who has already made extensive study of the problem on which his group plans to work. It may be an area in which the student has a personal interest and on which he has worked independently; therefore, somewhat different provision needs to be made for him in the class situation. Perhaps during the time spent on this particular unit of the course he can serve with profit to himself and his classmates as a "specialist." His learning, then, may not reside in acquiring new understandings specifically related to the problem under discussion. Rather, his growth is in ability to serve effectively as a resource person, to communicate ideas easily and effectively, to use varied media in explaining ideas, to work co-operatively, to gain group recognition through sound means, or to lead a discussion. Other ways of meeting the student's needs may be through individual work on aspects which will not be considered by the class, by working in other areas, or by undertaking a special project which may not be a part of the particular area of study. Such an instance also suggests the proper use of optional class attendance.

The third problem arises when students in their past experiences have relied heavily upon the textbook in the classroom situation. The college teacher as he first works with these students may find that their expectation is to master the textbook chapter by chapter. Their interests are primarily outside the content of instruction. They desire the instructor to be specific as to what is expected of them; they will in varying degrees gladly comply with the situation laid out for them. They have had little opportunity to assume responsibility for their own learning. Such a class is a challenge to the college teacher who is concerned about the growth of individuals toward a leadership role in society. Surely the "time is now" to bring about change if these prospective teachers are not to perpetuate themselves in the children and youth they "teach."

The psychology of learning, however, points clearly to the need to start with the learner where he is in his thinking and experience. In such classes it might be advisable to begin with a text. With specific assignments provided, discussion of emerging ideas might replace the usual reciting of text materials. Such ideas might then be checked in other sources and through out-of-class experiences. Gradually questions would become the central focus, with the text and other materials being used as resources. For the prospective teacher such an experience might well include a consideration of the place of the textbook in learning. On the basis of their own experience, how would these students use textbooks with children and youth?

Meeting the different needs of individuals within a student body is one of the great challenges to every teacher. It is a field in which experimental study is needed. There is much to be learned about the use of optional attendance at classes, directed reading and individual guidance, differentiated assignments which draw upon direct experiences as well as printed materials, committees and small groups as an integral part of classwork, clinics and laboratories to meet individual needs.

Methods and the Guidance of Learning

"Methods" refer to the ways used to guide the learning process. They include the lecture, discussion, individual and group reporting, using resource persons in varied ways, testing and evaluation, conferences, written assignments, individual and group study, direct experiences, the use of audio-visual materials and environmental factors, directed reading, and the many variations within each way of working.

Factors in the Learning Situation Determine the Method to Be Used

No method *per se* can be thought of as being effective or non-effective in guiding learning. No method should be used solely because it is traditional or because it is new. Creative teaching requires imagination and the development of new ways of meeting new needs through selecting methods most conducive to growth. The real test is the effect of a method on students.

The particular group of college students, the nature of the problem and the purposes to be realized, and the particular abilities of the teacher are the important factors in determining methods which will lead to desired growth. Current study of methodology demonstrates that the teacher is the single most influential factor in student learning, and that the most significant characteristic of the teacher is that of acceptance of the learner. More important than specific procedures are the aspects of emotional climate, learner involvement, and teacher enthusiasm for the work at hand. Back of these factors are the basic psychological principles governing the learning process—the significance of purpose and meaning, of active involvement, of security and belongingness, of generalizing and applying learnings to varied situations.

The way in which these learning principles function as guides in courses in general education, areas of specialization, and professional education may be clarified through an illustration. The principle of active involvement suggests that learning, to be efficient, must be a reaching-out process on the part of the learner. The lecture as a method of teaching, then, has a legitimate place only when it answers a student's recognized need for facts and interpretations not otherwise readily available, or when he sees it as a means of checking gaps in his background and pointing up lacks to which he should give attention. The principle of involvement makes the initiation and purpose of the lecture crucial. It should be given by the instructor or a special resource person when it is related to student purposes, when its content has meaning for the students, and when points made can and will be related by the students to their problems.

The goals to be achieved also determine the selection of method of work. For example, the lecture would not be selected if the purpose was to test one's judgment in taking a stand on a social issue. To achieve this purpose discussion would be more fruitful, since it provides opportunity for the student to state his position clearly, to give cogent reasons for holding it, and to defend it against contrary points of view.

Whatever method is used, the principle of security and group acceptance requires that certain qualities characterize the teaching-learning situation. These include, among others, knowing and respecting each student as an individual, recognizing his need to be understood by providing him opportunity to question and gain serious answers no matter how naive his question, insuring that his errors be turned into learning opportunities rather than bases of ridicule or other penalty. Further, this principle requires that the teacher share his ideas honestly and be willing to say, "I don't know"; that he be able to control conflict situations through recognizing opposing values and providing opportunity to explore the conflicts; that he respect changes in position based on added study and new data; and that he be consistent in his own behavior with students.

Likewise, through the use of varied methods, it is the responsibility of the college teacher to help the student clarify his thinking and develop a scholarship characterized by critical insight. The teacher's role may embrace identifying inconsistency, questioning assumptions, adding meaning through illustrations or by asking for the application of ideas to practical situations, raising questions of values, locating points of difficulty, making comparisons to sharpen similarities and differences, questioning to focus on consequences or new areas of needed inquiry, assisting in the formulation of propositions and generalizations.

A Look at Some Methods Used in Group Learning

Group activities provide opportunity for students and teachers to work co-operatively on common problems and to exchange and probe ideas and experiences.

The lecture has already been referred to as a method which tends to place the learner in a receiving role. It has a legitimate place in the curriculum when the student is reaching out for facts and understandings which can best be satisfied by the instructor or other competent person. It may be used as one resource in work on a problem.

Group discussion is probably one of the most fruitful means of promoting intellectual growth. It allows for the sharing of ideas, the challenging of concepts and viewpoints that point up bias and faulty assumptions, the clarification of ideas as they are put to work in situations of everyday living, and growth in ways of working co-operatively. Three major conditions contribute to realizing the potential values of this method. First, good discussion requires reasonable preparation or background on the part of each student. Only when the purpose is to identify and possibly set limits for the area to be studied is there a place for group discussion without advance preparation. Second, discussion is effective to the degree that it is rooted in a problem of real concern. Dewey in his analysis of the thinking process suggests that the individual never really thinks unless confronted with a problem. Discussion requires more than merely listening to the exposition of ideas. It involves grappling with ideas with reference to a particular situation and careful weighing of facts and ideas presented. Third, effective discussion requires skillful leadership and guidance—keen perception of what is being said, ability to relate this to the on-going stream of thinking, and empathy with each student so that his contribution is correctly understood. These qualities are essential to guiding productive discussion; they are the heart of creative teaching.

The *planned group interview* is a particular form of discussion in which a specialist meets with a group for the purpose of exchanging ideas on carefully planned questions, usually sent to the specialist in advance. At the time of the interview the topics can be discussed informally with give and take of questions and ideas. In essence, the procedure is similar to that of a group conference. It enables the students to share ideas with a specialist and to experience group problem solving with a person of superior competence. A useful variation of this method is the *panel* or *symposium* of individuals having different backgrounds, knowledge, and skills.

Direct experience is a method frequently referred to in this volume.[5] It may involve such activities as *making surveys, working in field situations, and participating in social action*. The position taken in this writing—that education should be meaningful and eventuate in changed behavior—makes direct experience an important factor in learning. Its significance is suggested by the separate chapter given to laboratory experiences. Suffice it here to recall the values obtained from guided direct experience in college and off-campus living. In an actual situation ideas and behaviors are subjected to the test of reality—to analysis in terms of the particular biases of many individuals, to the adequacy of human relations in working with and securing the support of a wide range of individuals, and to the dangers of mere academic treatment of ideas. The test is: "Will it work?"

While not a method in the same sense as those considered above, the way in which *varied types of instructional materials* are conceived and used greatly affects learning. In addition to facilitating understanding of the particular area of study, there are such learnings as: what sources to use and how to tell quickly whether they will be fruitful, how to judge reliability, how to estimate their appeal for a particular group, how to arrange materials so that they may be effectively shared with others. These tests need to be applied to a wide range of materials, including newspapers, magazines, reference books, government bulletins and other documents, films, art media, science materials, maps and charts, and a wide range of community resources. Further, the values in student production of materials—scripts, plays, broadcasts—are many. There is, therefore, little to justify a textbook-centered class or one in which reading is the only method of learning.

The need for knowing and selecting resource materials and using them productively is a continuing problem of the elementary and secondary-school teacher. Further, work with audio-visual equipment and similar materials, as well as machines and shop equipment, develops skills needed in our technological society as well as in leisure pursuits. If students are to become more proficient in this respect, they should share in the selecting of these materials, in planning for their use, and in organizing the physical environment of the teaching-learning situation.

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[5] See also Chapter III, p. 67, and Chapter VI.

Use of an *experimental approach* to work in an area is important for the citizen-teacher who deals in large part with many variables —human and material. While some problems can be solved only through the use of technical methods of research, much of creative living in a changing society comes through the kind of experimentation in which the individual tries out ideas in practical situations, sees how they work, notes limitations and shortages, and tests whether other ways judged to be promising are really more productive. Without this continuous testing, ideas and procedures tend to become fixed and stereotyped. The creative individual or the creative teacher is the person who questions, who hypothesizes about the immediate situation in which he is working, and through careful records studies the results of his ideas in action. Students who in their college experiences are encouraged to ask themselves, "If this were done what would be the result?" and thus to test ideas are the individuals whose potential creativity will be developed.

Another aspect of "methodology" important in guiding the learning of the prospective teacher is the *professional treatment of content.* This refers to teaching with the needs of the prospective teacher in mind in areas of specialization, and to a lesser degree in general education. Treating subject matter professionally in a course—*Biosocial Development of the Individual, Major Issues in a World Society, Literature for Leisure and as a Social Force, Enjoying Music* —means interpreting the essential content of the field to help the prospective teacher see its use with children and youth of various ages, appreciate the teaching and learning difficulties usually encountered in working in this area, and understand the nature of instructional materials appropriate for use with learners. These are professional understandings which can be learned effectively if taught in relationship to the subject matter with which they are to be used. Such professional treatment of subject matter is designed to help the student integrate his learning.

It is a concept which bespeaks subject matter appropriate to the college level, with an additional "new view" regarding the use of that content with children. At no time does it suggest that the college course be narrowed to elementary work in an area, or that the time given for dealing with collegiate material be reduced in order to examine the use of that material in the elementary and secondary school. As suggested in Chapter IV,[6] the professional elements require the extension of time in the academic areas. It is also true that not all academic content will be used with children, and course content will not be professionalized item for item.

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[6] Chapter IV, p. 140, and Chapter V, p. 179.

To treat the content of academic fields professionally requires a teacher who has the experiential background with which to give professional interpretations. The college teacher cannot give a professional slant to his work unless he understands children and youth and is informed and understanding of current curriculum practices and developments in the elementary and secondary schools. Some very able teachers will not have the requisite background. For those who work with prospective teachers this may suggest that provision be made for building the necessary understanding by spending time in study and in observation of children and teachers at work in schools. In other situations the need will best be met through requiring new staff members to have this experiential background. In still other colleges competence will be built and student needs met through a team approach in which at least one member has special understanding of the use of the content in teaching. The following excerpt from the plan of a teaching team working in a general education course in physical sciences illustrates the last proposal.

SCIENCE BLOCK IN GENERAL EDUCATION:
EXCERPTS FROM A UNIT ON POWER AND ENERGY[7]

Objectives to Be Realized.—To meet the needs of students having a variety of backgrounds and personal and professional interests this course must challenge students who have some knowledge of science and yet not be so difficult for non-science majors as to lose them in a maze of new material. To do this is to help young people meet their personal, social, and professional growth needs.

To help young people:

1. Acquire a sound background of technical knowledge (satisfy the desire to "know how it works").
2. Integrate the social and scientific aspects of a problem of modern civilization.
3. Establish a base for placing technology in a personal philosophic perspective.

To help young citizens:

1. Clarify for themselves the role of energy in modern society.
2. Understand basic phenomena of energy transformation.
3. Understand the cost (in resources) of energy consumption.
4. Understand the economic, political, and social implications of energy use.

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[7] From a plan developed by Dr. Harold Tannenbaum, State Teachers College, New Paltz, N.Y.

To help prospective teachers:

1. Understand the elements of electricity and other forms of power so that they may be able to teach them.
2. Become acquainted with and determine bases for the selection of instructional materials for use with children and youth.

The Continuing Life Situations.—This unit makes a special contribution to the development of knowledge and understandings needed in dealing with continuing life situations relating to:

The production, use, and control of electric power: technological bases for developing regional and national power policies. The social impact of science and technology: the role of the individual and social institutions in a rapidly changing industrial society.

Illustrative Excerpts.—These excerpts, as parts of a teacher's plan, are stated with reference to sub-problems which the teacher considers important aspects of the continuing situations.

The Sub-problem:

What are the various resource problems which have been of political concern to Americans during the past two years?

Suggested Activities:

1. Identification of major issues and problems (a student debate might open up some of the issues).
2. Lectures and discussions led by political leaders with varied viewpoints on these questions.
3. Committee reports on major legislative and administrative decisions of the Eighty-third Congress—e.g., Tideland Oil bill, the Natural Gas bill, the Dixon-Yates contract, the Atomic Energy act, the federal budget.
4. Lectures and discussion on any current local power and resource issue.
5. Symposium by advocates of public and private power ownership. Attempt to obtain citizens of the community to state their points of view.
6. . . .

Resources:

1. Moley, R., "Power, Back from the Bureaucrats," *Newsweek,* September 6, 1954, Vol. 44, No. 10.
   Levine, H. et al., "The Great Giveaway," *The Nation,* October 2, 1954, Vol. 179, No. 14.
2. Local political leaders with varied viewpoints on power and resource problems.
3. Authorities on power questions from such organizations as the Edison Electric Institute, Congress of Industrial Organizations, Public Power Institute.
4. . . .

Special Notes and Assignments:

1. All prospective teachers study the problem of introducing and considering controversial issues in the classroom.

2. Make reference to way in which children and youth relate themselves to these issues—roughly at what age level. Also the nature of the questions they will ask.
3. . . .

The Sub-problem:

How is electrical energy produced, distributed, and used?

Suggested Activities:

1. Through demonstrations and laboratory experiences develop the basic scientific principles on which electrical power industry is built (stress work of Oersted and Faraday).
2. Through laboratory experiences and demonstrations develop the technical exploitation of these principles in the modern electric power industry (e.g., generator, transformer, transmission lines).
3. Through motion pictures and laboratory experiences clarify the ease of transmission, ease of control, and flexibility in application of electric power.
4. Demonstration of a model electric power station.
5. Individual and small group projects (e.g., recent research in long lines transmission, recent uses of electricity in electronics, study of government control agencies of the electric power industry).
6. . . .

Resources:

1. Laboratory materials such as demonstration motors and generators, meters, wet cells and a variety of electrodes, and double fluid cells.
2. Knowlton, A. A., *Physics for College Students,* New York, McGraw-Hill, 2nd ed., 1936, chapters 10 and 11.

   Kolin, A., *Physics—Its Laws, Ideas, and Methods,* New York, McGraw-Hill, 1950, chapter VI.

   Jean et al., *Man and the Nature of His Physical Universe,* New York, Ginn and Co., 1935, pp. 241–256.
3. Demonstration power station (obtainable from local power station). If not available secure charts from Westinghouse or from Edison Electric Institute.
4. . . .

Special Notes and Assignments:

1. All prospective teachers must know how to make a demonstration motor (d.c.) using #22 wire, bell wire, a disecting needle, and some adhesive tape.
2. All prospective teachers should list and annotate children's books on electricity. Also films and film strips.
3. Make sure that people working at primary level know how electricity gets into house or school.
4. Help people working at high-school level make generating stations.
5. . . .

While the excerpts selected and just presented do not make specific reference to team teaching and co-operative planning with students, both are provided for in the complete plan. Just as team teaching and co-operative planning are not evident in the excerpts, neither is the provision for individual differences in ability or in vocational choice other than that of teaching. The full plan makes proposals for differentiating work to meet the interests of other students who at this time have special vocational goals.

Professional treatment of content involves a way of working which requires more than extended knowledge of a field. It can only be used productively by the college teacher who is keenly appreciative of how his field has aided human welfare and progress; by the scholar who is sincerely and deeply interested in helping others (children, youth, and adults) to use these materials in meeting problems of everyday living.

The foregoing illustration suggests the *co-operative teaching of college classes* as another way of working, especially when an interdisciplinary approach is used and the special competence of several persons is needed. This may be secured in a number of ways. First, there is the step of joint planning of an area of work in advance of teaching the unit, as illustrated in the material immediately preceding. Then come the co-operative planning and development of the work with students. Where possible and when time schedules and load can be adjusted, it is helpful if the several staff members responsible for planning can also work as a team in the classroom situation or out-of-class activity. Much can be gained by the shared responsibility, by having major resource persons present as the work develops, by the freedom allowed to work experimentally when the staff member not responsible for serving as chairman of the class or other group discussion gives attention to student responses or other aspects crucial in the work, and by demonstrating to students how staff members teach co-operatively. Where several staff members cannot be present for the development of the work, all may participate in the planning and serve as resource persons. In this capacity they may contribute materials, meet with the class on particular occasions, hold conferences with students having special interests, and advise with their colleagues on the general development of the work. For teachers who have not worked this way there may be questions of security and freedom to be answered. Once these can be attained there will emerge the positive stimulation of sharing one's hopes and problems with colleagues. Another very real advantage is the mutual understanding, gained through direct experience by many staff members, of more of the college curriculum.

No consideration of college teaching would be complete without reference to the use of *intensive reading programs, individual and group projects and papers.* Use of these methods, as any other, is important only as it facilitates the achievement of desired goals. An intensive reading program may contribute to two major purposes. It may provide concentrated opportunity to use reading sources to find the answers to problems and concerns. On the other hand, it may serve to raise questions and open new avenues of inquiry when it is used early in a course to build a common background or to help students check their immediate concerns with those identified by more experienced workers. These purposes can be achieved and the intensive reading program become a useful way of working only when materials appropriate to the particular students are available. This is especially true when intensive reading is used early in a course as a means of raising questions. If the available reading material is not relevant to situations which are meaningful to the students little more than abstract learning can result. Used later in a course to locate data bearing on a problem or concern, the reading undoubtedly will also suggest new inquiries and areas to be explored. For the experience to be as meaningful as possible for the students it is essential that the purposes of each student for the reading period be clear and a definite plan of work and of evaluation of progress be mapped out by the student and his advisers.

Perhaps the individual project or paper is one of the most commonly used methods in college work. It, too, can serve a dual purpose—to afford the student an opportunity to carry out a piece of work of special interest or worth to him and to provide the instructor further evidence of the student's growth and needed next steps. Each is an important purpose that can be realized only when clearly understood by both student and teacher and accepted as needed and worthwhile. When this is not the case the project or paper becomes merely a task to be accomplished and the means used may or may not contribute to desired learning. It may become an assignment to be completed as promptly as possible with major attention to the resulting grade rather than to what is learned either about the topic or how to write a substantial paper. The individual or small group paper or project can be a very valuable means of meeting individual differences. There is need, however, to safeguard using it for all members of the group as a general requirement. When it is used provision should be made to plan with individuals in terms of their needs and interests. This may be done through individual conferences or through a memorandum giving a statement of the problem or activity, the reasons for its selection, major steps to be taken in working on it, and special help desired. The memorandum can be reviewed by the teacher and suggestions offered in writing. Where plans are not clear, the individual conference may be used. Whether individual or group projects and papers are productive ways of working may be determined by the degree to which they foster learning.

Teaching methods are many and often a single class period requires the use of several. Discovering effective new ways of working, as well as new combinations of methods, is a test of every college teacher's ingenuity in his experimental approach to teaching. However, method is but one means to an end. Procedures and ways of working can make their full contribution only in a favorable emotional climate—one where learners are accepted and valued, where students are stimulated by the spirit and enthusiasm of the teacher for them and for the contribution of his subject or fields to human welfare and progress. Method is to be valued only as it contributes to a learning experience which is based upon recognized principles of learning.

Evaluation in the Teaching-Learning Process

Teaching, learning, and evaluation are inseparable parts of the same whole. From evaluation of an activity and the resulting learning come plans for new learning experiences. This cycle applies to work with students, to development of the teacher-education program itself, and to the creative efforts of the teacher.

Evaluation Is in Terms of Values and Goals Sought

Evaluation, as the process of judging the effectiveness of the educational experience, can be valid only when it is made with reference to the ends and values sought. In the concept of teacher education developed in this volume, the real test of growth lies in the quality of thought and action of students as they face the problems and situations which make up their lives as citizen-teachers. Not only what a student knows and understands, but his ability *to use* that knowledge functionally in a range of situations provides the basis of evaluation.

As contrasted with the general college, a unique problem in evaluation is found in the teacher-preparing institution. In the former, personal growth can be evaluated in terms of the student's own potentialities and limitations rather than in relation to a fixed standard. When the student is making progress commensurate with his ability, the college teacher fulfills his responsibility. This would seem to be an unsound practice in a professional school, such as a college which prepares teachers, where certain basic competencies must be developed if children are to have positive learning experiences. Evaluation in the professional school for teachers must consider both the student's present stage of development with reference to *agreed upon standards* and his potentiality for achieving the basic qualifications. This points to a special need for continuous evaluation to note changes in behavior and what these mean in terms of the likelihood of his achieving the desired goals. It involves determining the level of growth required for initial competence and for the student to continue to grow when he is "on his own" in the field.

The problem is further complicated by the fact that teaching effectiveness is not a matter of adding together levels of attainment in a number of areas. Rather, it is the particular combination of understandings, attitudes, and skills that determines the student's future teaching effectiveness. For example, the prospective teacher who has little basic competence in vocal music may use the piano and the record-player so skillfully, and may develop such valuable ways in which musically able pupils can contribute, that children have a fine experience under his guidance. This interrelatedness suggests that evaluation of student growth should be in terms of the ability to deal with situations which may require several or many different competencies, as well as specific proficiency in an area of study.

Evaluation Takes Many Forms

If the quality of thought and action of students as they meet life situations is the goal, then the behavior of students in actual situations must be evaluated. This goal places first importance upon direct observation of the student in his college life and in his relationships and activities with pupils and teachers in student teaching and other laboratory experiences. Anecdotal records in which situations and behavior responses are noted afford one helpful way to secure data for evaluation. Written from time to time by the student himself, they reveal his perception of his behavior. Written also by staff members working with him in the same situation, they provide comparison of interpretations. Such comparisons may be suggestive for the guidance of his further experience. These records may be supported by tape recordings of small group situations and conferences which show the student at work on a problem in an actual group situation. To these may be added the plans, notes, or other materials prepared and used by the student on these occasions. Records of these varied kinds, augmented over a period of time, help the student as well as his teachers and advisers to know the nature of his progress and to suggest next steps.

Not all learning, however, can be evaluated through observation and recording of direct behavior. The actual situations may not be at hand, although colleges are finding more such opportunities as they accept a wider interpretation of the curriculum and include more direct action and use of community resources as part of classwork. There will, however, always be need to evaluate growth in dealing with ideas verbally, with or without reference to a particular situation.

The most common method used is the examination, which frequently is primarily a "telling back" of information and ideas. The limitations of this type of examination are generally recognized. It provides little evidence on which to base an evaluation other than the student's immediate retention of the specific concepts. There is little or no evidence by which the instructor can tell whether this retention is temporary learning "for examination purposes," whether the ideas can be recalled at some later time, or whether they can be used in meeting new situations. The preparation of examinations that will provide significant evaluative evidence is obviously a science to which colleges are giving increasing attention.

Two major efforts characterize current practices of individual teachers and special college units whose major responsibility is to assist teachers with problems of evaluation.[8] The first is the development and use of more functional types of examinations. One promising lead is the "situation examination" in which the student is asked to respond to a situation similar to those he will meet in carrying out his responsibilities as a citizen and teacher. The following is illustrative of such an examination used in a course for prospective elementary-school teachers.[9]

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[8] Early and suggestive steps are reported in Troyer, M., and Pace, R., *Evaluation in Teacher Education*. Washington, D.C.: Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, 1944.

[9] Situation Examination used by Dr. Margaret McKim, Teachers College, University of Cincinnati.

CLASSROOM SITUATIONS: Analyze the first classroom situation described below, and *two* others from each of the groups which follow (five situations in all). Tell what you like or dislike about the situation, and what other steps you think might be taken. *Be as clear as you can as to why you analyze the situation as you do.*

1. Miss J never uses a language textbook. She develops new lessons with her children through discussion and makes up all her own practice exercises to meet the needs of her particular group.

Group One—Developing correct usage (choose two)

2. Billy B. has trouble with his spelling, although he reads very well. He spells "night" as "nite"; "through" as "threw"; "coming" as "comeing"; "written" as "writen." He will, however, often spell correctly such words as "harbor," "magnify," "develop." His teacher is encouraging a visual approach to words, urging him to study the way each one looks very carefully, and doing little to give any special practice which teaches discrimination of word sounds.
3. Miss D and her fourth grade have made a list of "Never Never's" to help them with their writing. This list is posted on the bulletin board and contains such items as *"Never* begin a sentence with 'and,'" *"Never* end a sentence with a word like 'with' or 'to.'" The children turn to this list for help regularly and are very proud of it.
4. Miss K and her children plan their day so that they have a period of about an hour at some time during the day for individual work on skills. During this time children may be working at any one of several tasks, depending on what they and Miss K decide they need most. She spends her time working with individuals or small groups.

Group Two—Developing ability to deal with situations (Choose two)

5. Miss A's sixth grade has been very much interested in creative writing for the past three months. Now, as an aid to creative writing, they have planned to spend an hour once a week analyzing the characteristics which make their favorite authors and poems so popular. Stories from their readers and library books serve as a basis for this discussion.
6. Miss C does not use any letter-writing situations in her class except those in which all letters can legitimately be mailed. She makes much use of letters to ill children, pen-pal clubs, etc. In every situation in which the class writes letters every child has the satisfaction of writing a letter and seeing it mailed.
7. Mary Ann, in Miss B's room, is extremely shy before any type of audience. Her teacher is trying to remedy this by not asking her to do anything which requires any detailed reports to the whole class. She lets her take part in regular class discussion and has recently helped her become chairman of one of the larger social studies committees.

Such an examination, by giving the student an opportunity to indicate the actions he would take and the reasons for them, provides evidence of anticipated behavior and requires the application of ideas and concepts rather than merely repeating them.

A second development with which teachers are experimenting is the use of reactions other than examinations. Among the various evaluative instruments reported in current literature are student diaries and logs, brief "reaction" papers, special oral or written reports, critical reviews of books or events, self-evaluation statements, reports on long-term projects, small group discussion of a given problem, and the individual oral conference or examination. Every college teacher should develop several soundly conceived instruments which will best serve to determine growth.

Evaluation Is an Essential Part of the Student's Learning Activity

Evaluation is an essential part of the student's learning. It is important that he build attitudes toward, and habits of, evaluation that help him to become his own best critic. Often he may be the only person to commend or to criticize his action in a particular situation. To be able to evaluate one's present status, to know how to appraise one's needs, to be able to propose next steps, are important aspects of growth. The ability to evaluate soundly is taught and learned as is any other part of the curriculum. Provision must be made for students to share in setting up and applying standards for the evaluation of group and individual activities and as guides for the evaluation of their growth.

Attitudes and skills needed in evaluation develop as teachers and students together discuss proposals for a new study and plan classwork. Long-view planning by the student and his adviser helps to increase these skills. The conference of student and teacher adds new insights as individually prepared analyses of progress are compared and a common judgment determined. These, and the many informal situations in which decisions are made—deciding to rewrite a report, wondering why a contribution was disregarded by the group, finding a better way to explain a point of view—all contribute to growth of the student in using evaluation effectively.

Reporting Student Progress through Descriptive Statements

Evaluation of student growth is a continuous process, sometimes informal and at other times more systematic and complete. Growth is revealed as cumulative records give a picture of the developing and changing individual. From time to time—at the close of a particular project, at the completion of a course, at times when a special evaluation may be desired—there is need for a summary report of progress made and of goals achieved. What form should this take?

The form well known to all college teachers is the letter grade. Its inadequacy is equally well known. What does an "A" mean? Does it mean the same thing when given by two teachers working in the same instructional field? Is any student's work "A" or "C" with reference to each of the goals to which the course or activity contributes? Students who are able to make a substantial, critical evaluation of their work often find it very difficult to assign themselves a letter grade. This difficulty is experienced equally by their teachers.

Descriptive statements and analyses would seem more nearly adequate to report growth of the kind important for the citizen and teacher in our society. Some teachers are using descriptive accounts in the form of a letter to the student in which his major strengths and limitations are discussed with suggestions as to next steps. Others find a more organized analytical statement useful, as illustrated by the following form:

Area of Growth ________________________________

Evidence	*Analysis of Growth*	*Recommended Next Steps*
Data selected from anecdotal records.	An analytical statement of the student's present competence and progress.	Suggestions for further growth.

Such a form should be used with reference to each area of growth on which the student and teacher are working. Both student and instructor might, at agreed upon times, make such an independent analysis and then compare judgments with a view to preparing a statement to be included in the student's permanent record.

Some colleges may not be able to move at once to this qualitative evaluation of student progress. For purposes of transferring credit to other colleges and to meet certain other current demands it may be necessary to continue to use the letter grade and credit hours. However, beginnings can be made by using descriptive analyses along with letter grades. Or descriptive statements may be used in place of a letter grade in some areas such as student teaching. The following catalog statement suggests the way in which one college is moving gradually toward the use of qualitative statements:

> A student's achievement in this course of study is not easy to evaluate. It would be much simpler to test the mastery of a prescribed body of knowledge

> or the assimilation of content of a given number of books. Wheelock College has no requirement of examinations. Tests and examinations are frequently given but at the discretion of each instructor and in such a way and at such time as fits the work being done in a given course. A variety of evidences of achievement are used in evaluating the work of students and a variety of means are employed to secure the evidence. It is required that standards of achievement be defined and that these and the types of evidence used for evaluation of work shall be known to students. Grades are used in reporting students' work, but for each student in each course there are also descriptive accounts of her work. Since these reports are open to the student as reported in the account of the guidance program, they are written with the purpose of helping students to improve their methods of work and their general level of competence.[10]

Eventually staff and student groups may find it advisable to substitute this type of evaluation for the usual points of credit. Attainments in any field, the completion of courses and curricula, and approval for teaching would then be evaluated in terms of the student's accomplishments in developing understandings and skills needed by the citizen-teacher, rather than by the requirements of a given number of years, hours, or points of credit.

The Same Principles Apply to the Evaluation of an Individual, a Course, and the Total Educational Program

Evaluation not only gives a developing picture of the individual student, but also serves to indicate needed change in various aspects of the college program. In fact, study and evaluation of the student should contribute to understanding of modifications that need to be made in the total program. A shortage area common to many students, for example, suggests the need to consider where, if at all, in the present curriculum the student receives help in that area. Is it one not now provided for? Is it provided but not developed so as to meet needs?

At times, however, staff groups may wish to make a more direct study and evaluation of the college curriculum. Such a study might follow the same general procedures of gathering data with reference to stated goals, as suggested in evaluating the growth of the individual student. For example, the guides to curriculum development outlined in Chapter VII might be used as characteristics and goals to be met by the teacher-education program. Through data submitted by students and staff, and evidence especially collected, an analysis could be made of the merits and limitations of the present program with reference to each guide. Suggestions for change would be based on the analysis of that evidence.

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[10] Wheelock College, Boston, Catalog, 1954–1956, p. 25.

More closely related to college teaching, however, is the evaluation of a particular course or activity. Increasingly, college teachers are turning to students for judgments regarding the values and limitations of the experiences provided. This is being done in a variety of ways—a class session given to informal reactions, free response in writing, guided response in terms of a choice from among a series of possible replies, reaction to specific items with supporting evidence. The different plans of evaluation afford different kinds of help to the college teacher. For example, the guided response involving choice from among a number of items gives a general picture of factors valued or rejected by a number of students. The more open-ended and free-response questions with evidence to support judgments indicate to the college teacher the aspects of the program about which the students have strong feeling. As the supporting evidence is considered their reactions can also be studied for the soundness of their position.

The following evaluation form, used in a course in education, is illustrative of ways in which students are being asked to contribute to course evaluation. It has the limitations of any code rating, but is suggestive of the range of factors of concern to the college teacher as he seeks to improve his teaching.

EVALUATION SHEET FOR STUDENTS IN COURSE[11]

To help the instructor evaluate the course and to make decisions for future class procedures, will you answer the following questions as carefully as possible, giving in each instance, as honest and constructive an answer as you can make . . .

No names, please; remain anonymous.

I. Will you check to the left of each item the point on the scale which best describes your reactions to several methods used in the teaching of this course.

1	2	3	4	5
Used too little		About right use		Used too much

____ 1. Use of audio-visual materials of all types.

____ 2. Field trips; visits to schools; observation in schools.

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[11] Experimental Form used by Dr. Rolf Larsen, School of Education, University of Connecticut.

_____ 3. Use of individual research; individual reports to class.
_____ 4. Study groups working on common problem; group reports; panels.
_____ 5. Seminars; seminar-like groups; group discussion in class.
_____ 6. Lectures.
_____ 7. Writing projects: term papers, lesser papers, reports.
_____ 8. Individual conferences.
_____ 9. Bringing to class resource people to help with class problem.
_____10. Amount of reading assigned.
_____11. Classroom experimentation and projects.
_____12. Objective-type examinations.

II. Some criticisms of a course center around its philosophy or its organizational structure. Answer the following questions as shown by the scale.

1	2	3
Yes	Not sure: somewhere in between	No

_____ 1. The objectives of the course were clear to me.
_____ 2. The aims and philosophy of the course interested me.
_____ 3. The class was well organized and I knew what I was to do.
_____ 4. Physical and emotional conditions were conducive to learning.
_____ 5. There was opportunity to get answers to individual problems.
_____ 6. An attempt was made to recognize individual backgrounds of students.
_____ 7. There was opportunity for developing some skills important to teaching.
_____ 8. There was opportunity for self-analysis and self-evaluation.
_____ 9. There was opportunity for free expression of ideas and personal opinions.
_____10. Material taught was too abstract and theoretical.
_____11. Teacher did not get the subject across to students.
_____12. There was opportunity for conferences, for help when needed.
_____13. Amount of reading assigned was about right.

III. In addition to academic outcomes, an attempt has been made to stimulate growth in attitudes. Check each of the items below indicating to what extent you feel you have grown in each.

1	2	3	4	5
Feel no growth has occurred		Some growth has occurred		Feel that I have grown greatly

_____ 1. Attitudes toward children and adolescents.
_____ 2. Sensitivity to, and understanding of, problems of youth.
_____ 3. Awareness of the problems of public education.
_____ 4. Awareness of role of public school in our society.

_____ 5. Understanding of myself and my own potentialities.
_____ 6. Ability to evaluate my own progress.
_____ 7. Formulation of a philosophy of education.
_____ 8. Skill in, and willingness to participate in, discussions.
_____ 9. Understanding of problems of learners at all levels.
_____10. Gain in personal poise and confidence.

IV. For each of the following questions, all a part of the course, indicate how well prepared you feel you are.

1	2	3	4	5
Feel I know little of topic		Average knowledge of topic		Feel I understand topic well

_____ 1. What is learning? What are outcomes of learning?
_____ 2. Under what conditions does learning best take place?
_____ 3. What are effective ways to teach motor skills?
_____ 4. What are main problems in comprehension of skills?
_____ 5. How can we best teach attitudes and ideals?
_____ 6. Under what conditions is practice and drill effective?
_____ 7. What are the common problems of adolescents?
_____ 8. How do we best study the behavior of children in school?
_____ 9. What can teacher do to promote good emotional adjustment?
_____10. What makes discipline problems? How can they be met?
_____11. What factors are important in managing group behavior?

V. Group unity. On the basis of your experience with this class, check the point on the scale which represents your impression of this *group as a whole.*

1	2	3	4	5
Low: the quality was not observed		Average: some feeling that quality was present		High: presence of quality apparent

_____ 1. Friendliness, cheerfulness of group.
_____ 2. Warmness of student reactions to others.
_____ 3. Class members' acceptance of each other.
_____ 4. Cooperative spirit; working with others.
_____ 5. Spontaneity in sharing ideas, experiences.
_____ 6. Intensity of interest shown in work.
_____ 7. Feeling of activity, energy, vitality.
_____ 8. Warm emotional tone; freedom from tension.
_____ 9. Enjoyment of group life together.
_____10. Democratic operational patterns.
_____11. Acceptance by class of teacher suggestions and control.
_____12. Unity of the group as a whole; sense of belonging to the group.

VI. Indicate the degree of difficulty of the items listed below:

1	2	3	4	5
Much easier than most courses	Easier than many	Average difficulty	Harder than many	Much harder than most

_____ 1. Examinations in the course.
_____ 2. Readings for the course.
_____ 3. Questions, problems for class discussion.
_____ 4. Concepts covered in course content.
_____ 5. Everything included, how hard was course.

VII. In terms of stimulation and interest, how would you rate this course?

1	2	3	4	5
Duller than most	Duller than many	Average	Better than many	Better than most . . .

Both individual and course evaluation have special significance for the prospective teacher. Reflection by the student as he participates in each offers positive suggestions for evaluation as an integral and essential part of teaching children and youth.

The College Teacher Needed in Teacher Education: Fiction or Reality

Is the college teacher who is capable of working with students on their concerns and of helping them to enlarge their world, and who conceives his central function to be that of helping individuals to guide their own education, a mythical person who exists only in the imagination and cannot be discovered in reality? Will the proposals of this volume fail of realization because of the want of teachers who believe in these ideas and are willing to carry them out? What do these ideas mean for the preparation of young college teachers? What do they mean for the experienced teacher now at work in a college or university offering a teacher-education program?

The college teacher needed to carry forward the desired program in teacher education is neither a paragon nor a myth. College teachers with the attributes implied above are already working this way in teacher-preparing institutions. Others are experimenting and moving in this direction in spite of the present difficulties of class load and heavy out-of-class responsibilities. Any college teacher who can wholeheartedly subscribe to the following can become a vital member of a faculty responsible for the preparation of teachers:

Interest in people and social issues as well as things
Interest in teaching more than research and publication *per se;* willingness to experiment to improve teaching
Confidence in the integrity of purpose of the college student and fundamental respect for him
Devotion to the work of preparing teachers and willingness to work hard in improving such programs
Ability to place professional demands before personal interests
Commitment to scholarship characterized by a continuing search for greater understanding and insight, courage, and ability to translate ideas into action
Enthusiasm for his students, for the teaching profession, and for the contribution of his subject or field of work to welfare and progress

For some teachers, subscribing to the foregoing will mean planning and teaching co-operatively with colleagues for the first time. For some it will mean new use of direct experience and referral of students to laboratory situations rather than to reading in the library. Others will wish to express in new ways the confidence which they really feel in students. Co-operative planning with students will be a new and challenging experience for some, as will student participation in evaluation. Willingness to select content in terms of its value for the citizen-teacher will not always be easy when it means omitting materials taught over many years. There may also be need to see out-of-class activities as valuable learning experiences and as replacing certain classwork. For some teachers, needed change will be in the area of using a variety of resources of which the text will be but one, while for others experimentation will lie in different ways of guiding learning experiences. Many teachers will need to review their own use of time. It may mean more time allotted to learning about students and evaluating their progress through direct contact and work with them in out-of-class activities and less time in reading papers or reports. It may mean more selective reading in the fields in which the college teacher works, and the substitution of direct laboratory experiences with students for reading about teaching-learning situations.

Truly effective college teaching is a difficult but satisfying responsibility. Many problems of an administrative nature need to be solved.[12] The teacher's sense of security in the college and in the college community has much to do with his willingness to try new and different ways of working. As in almost any new venture, first efforts will take more time. Administrative encouragement of experimention, recognition of growing skill and artistry in teaching, and attention to class size and to teaching load in course and noncourse activities are important. Often it will be advisable to work experimentally in one class, and as skills and added insights are gained promising new ways of working can be extended to other areas without the expenditure of undue time and effort. Very real progress is being made as experienced and relatively inexperienced teachers are including, as a regular part of their work, experimentation with more promising ways of achieving desired goals. The nature of the experimentation will change in keeping with new findings and new goals. Crucial, too, are the care with which staff members are selected and the provision made for continuing in-service growth. The college teacher who recognizes the far-reaching consequences of his position as a teacher in the education of prospective teachers brings a first requisite to membership in a faculty responsible for the education of teachers. Providing situations which help him grow in realizing the desired consequences in his work with students is a responsibility to which administrative leadership can make a unique contribution. Seemingly far away goals become realities as problems of an administrative nature are resolved.

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[12] For a more detailed discussion of these problems see Chapter X.

Goals will be better realized also as programs for the preparation of college teachers are modified to meet the needs of the prospective college teacher of teachers-to-be. This may mean a graduate curriculum dictated by the necessity for work in broad fields, for practical experience in college teaching as a part of professional study prior to entering the college field, for a selective admission which values prior experiences with children and youth as essential for those who are to help others prepare to teach. But this is another whole field of curriculum development and is not within the province of this writing.

Clearly, the preparation of teachers—teachers of children, youth, and college students—is a co-operative undertaking of the undergraduate and the graduate college. Each has an important contribution to make in developing America's greatest resource—its children and youth.

9

STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK IN TEACHER EDUCATION *

The Status of Student Personnel Work

The challenge for teacher education as set forth in the preceding chapters of this book necessitates an examination of student personnel work as currently practiced in colleges preparing teachers.

The improved program of teacher education discussed in those chapters is generally in advance of any in operation today. The colleges have been challenged to prepare the teacher to teach in an enlightened democracy faced with growing demands on its schools. It has been proposed that all experiences of college living under the control of the college be considered as parts of the curriculum. Learning, it has been stated, should be based on meaningful experiences in a variety of general, special, and professional courses. The instructor should guide the preparing teacher into the experiences he needs both in and out of the classroom, and he should guide the experiences in such manner that the young teacher may gain the skills and knowledge he can use.

The program as described in the previous chapters demands that college teachers themselves be good teachers. It seeks to make them interested in their students. It encourages them to understand the students as persons with varying abilities, goals, accomplishments, and problems.

Throughout the discussion of the curriculum and the methods of instruction contained in Chapters III–VIII, the importance of the learner in a wealth of potentially meaningful college experiences is stressed. The instructor is challenged to teach the student in a dynamic college rather than in a static classroom. He is encouraged

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* This chapter was prepared by Professor Jack Shaw, Director, Department of Student Personnel, Colorado College of Education, Greeley, Colorado.

to know his students not only as members of his class but as citizens of the college community. His whole purpose as a college teacher is pointed toward the student personnel of the college—a truly student personnel point of view. The philosophy of the proposed program of teacher education emphasizes the value and use of experience in the development of the student in *all* his aspects of growth and learning. The development of the student for the profession of teaching as one physical, mental, social, and emotional person is the purpose of the program. Basically in this book the goals of the teacher-education program are considered to be (1) the all-round growth and development of the student, (2) the provision of opportunities for the practice of his developing skills, appreciations, and understanding, and (3) his acquisition of readiness to fulfill his many-faceted role of teacher.

What, then, is the place of student personnel work in this proposed teacher-education program? What is the role of the personnel worker in assisting the college teacher in the guidance of his students? What changes, if any, are desirable in processes of recruiting, admission, and registration? Are present-day records adequate? What shall be the role of the personnel worker in selection of students for teacher education or in the retention of students in the program? How shall housing and health services contribute to the program? What is the role of the counseling psychologist? Are present-type teacher-placement services adequate? What follow-up studies are necessary? It is the purpose of the present chapter to envisage the place of student personnel work in the education of the teacher and to answer some of these questions.

Major Concerns of Student Personnel Workers

In teacher education personnel workers and college teachers alike have professed their belief that human values are of paramount importance and that the individual is supremely worthy. All college staff members must assume that there is a social and vocational place in the world for each person. All should recognize the unique needs, wants, and talents of the individual student. The development of the student is a continuous process and his education should be planned with due regard for where he currently stands in that development.

The concern of the faculty and staff in any college preparing teachers is the development of the student as a unique individual while preparing him to become a scholarly and skilled teacher. This involves his acceptance as he is when admitted to college. It demands attention to his personal growth—physically, mentally, emotionally, and socially—while in college. It requires concern for his preparation in knowledge and skills for the teaching profession.

An important concern of the personnel worker is to work with fellow members of the faculty toward the fullest development of the student's various capacities. This development may occur through class instruction and through faculty-student conferences. It may occur through the participation of the students in college housing, campus activities, and clubs. It may come about through the individualized work of specialists in health and counseling services. It is most likely to come about through a combination of these. The active participation of students in campus affairs provides direct experiences, as indicated in Chapters IV and V, in such things as the appreciation of the arts, the assumption of responsibilities, and the use of democratic practices. These experiences having developmental values provide for lasting outcomes of instruction and personnel work which may be looked upon as among the real goals of the total educational process. Such experiences contribute to the well-balanced development of the individual in his preparation for the teaching profession.

A second concern of personnel workers is the conservation of the time and energy of faculty and students through assistance in many of the problems of housing, health, registration, record keeping, guidance, and job placement. Help in the solution of these problems for students tends to keep their morale high. Their participation in the learning experiences both within and without the classroom may then be more active and enthusiastic with resulting improvement for them in both curricular and guidance outcomes.

Some Accomplishments in Student Personnel Work

Student personnel work in colleges has progressed rapidly since World War I. The progress came in the changing emphasis—the services were to be rendered *for the welfare of all the students* rather than for the easier administration of the college or the control of the student.

During this period of progress student personnel work has been an aggressive, growing influence among the more traditional practices in teacher education. In some colleges it became *departmentalized and specialized,* thereby becoming separated from the other instructional and administrative phases of education. In other colleges *it remained decentralized* and was carried on quietly by various interested or assigned individuals with little or no co-ordination of services.

In forward-looking colleges the program of personnel work has become an integral, contributing movement within the total educational program. These colleges recognize their great responsibilities for the achievements that are possible through attention by all the faculty and staff to the many facets of student growth. Achievement by the student academically and progress in his personal development are not dichotomous. Wholesome personal development contributes to academic success and in part is dependent upon academic success. Neither is the sole responsibility of either instructor or personnel worker. College faculties preparing teachers are recognizing this and are gradually making their instructional and personnel programs a united or interwoven effort to provide the best environment, stimulation, and opportunity for a college education worthy of the teaching profession.

There has been an increase in the length of time a student remains in college.[1] There has been a better guidance of students into the various majors or curricula, and academic achievement has improved.[2] Morale among students is better, and earlier identification and prevention of disciplinary problems are possible.[3] In general, the goal of student personnel work and academic instruction has been to use or help use all the resources of the college and its environs to promote the all-round development of each student.

Attention has been given to the selection of candidates for teacher certification. Techniques of preventive medicine and health education as provided by the student health service have cared for the student's health. Remedial laboratories in reading and study skills have assisted students who need help in these skills. The college programs of scholarships, loans, grants, and part-time employment have aided the financially needy. Vocational and academic counseling has helped the student more nearly realize his potential ability. Confidence and competence in social relations have been nurtured in the broad social opportunities found in classroom, social and recreational activities, and group living. The skills of good citizenship—

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[1] Koos, Leonard V., "Some Essentials in Student Personnel Work," *Junior College Journal,* 10:602–609, May, 1940.

[2] Rothney, J. W. M., and Roens, B. A., *Guidance of American Youth.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950.

[3] Torrance, E. Paul (ed.), "Summary of Research at Kansas State College Counseling Bureau," Manhattan, Kansas, 1945–50, November, 1950, mimeographed.

co-operation, leadership, and democratic self-determination—have been learned, practiced, and developed by the teachers-to-be both inside and outside the classroom.

According to the reports of the AACTE visiting teams, colleges having a fairly well co-ordinated program of personnel services and instructional services reflect an eagerness among faculty members to participate in an evaluation program and to seek ways of improving not only the program but their own professional skills and understandings in the personnel field. Such colleges appear to have an adequate number of counselors or advisers with a broad concept of guidance and counseling services.

The majority of college reports indicate a desire to improve personnel services although in many instances this desire does not permeate the whole faculty and administration. Criticisms of personnel programs are directed toward a need for co-ordination among personnel services and between the services and instruction, a need for in-service training for faculty and staff engaged in personnel work, and above all a need for better communication between students and faculty, students and personnel offices, and between faculty and personnel workers. Critical comments also point up the need for faculty and students to participate in personnel policy making, the lack of follow-up studies to determine the effectiveness of the program, the need for better standards of selection, and the tendency to overload advisers and counselors. Despite the inadequacies revealed by the self-criticism within each report, the statements show clearly that colleges for teacher education are taking positive steps in providing personnel services.

Some Issues in Student Personnel Work

Student personnel work has developed in different ways on different campuses. As each college has endeavored to meet the needs of its student body, it has generally developed personnel services in keeping with the philosophy and objectives of the college. What, then, are the issues confronting teacher education in the area of student personnel services?

Centralization or Decentralization of Student Personnel Services

One issue before many colleges is that of centralization or decentralization of the student personnel services. Some colleges provide personnel services so unobtrusively that many students and faculty do not know they exist. On other campuses the services are highly organized and centralized in a department of student personnel work headed by a director or dean. In most colleges the services are organized in a manner somewhere between these two extremes. Counseling services may be in one office, health services in another, and the services of admission, record keeping, registration, and graduation in the registrar's office. Some services, such as program planning and academic advising performed by a faculty member or a departmental representative, may not be centralized.

The issue in any college is not one of complete centralization or decentralization of its personnel services. Rather it is a question of the extent of centralization of any one service and the adequate co-ordination of the many personnel services among themselves and with the instructional programs of the college. In this time of increasing enrollments in teacher education, the faculty may need to study the services it provides in order to determine how best to organize and administer them so that the greatest good may come to the greatest number of students without overburdening the individual faculty member to the extent that he can no longer be a truly effective teacher. In multi-purpose colleges the faculty in teacher education may need to seek to bring into better focus for students in education the services centralized for the whole campus. Indeed, there may be need to supplement such centralized services with related services within the teacher-education program itself.

One major purpose of co-ordination of personnel work is to achieve greater understanding by the faculty and students of the services available. Another purpose is to facilitate more frequent referral of students to the office or person best able to serve them. A third major purpose is to conserve the time and energies of the faculty for the best welfare of all the students. A fourth is to avoid costly overlap of services.

Co-ordination of the services in every type of college is essential. Where the size of the college, the philosophy of the faculty, the facilities available, and the needs of the student body require a highly centralized program of personnel services, the faculty and administration should provide for such a program. Where the characteristics of the college are such that little centralization is needed, a co-ordinated, decentralized program of services might well be continued.

Student Personnel Services as "Services to" or "Education of" Students

As the faculty, students, and administration study the organization of personnel and instructional services which best fits the needs of the students, they may face another issue: Shall the emphasis in the personnel services be on "service to" or "education of" the student? Examination of the many campus personnel services indicates that this issue is probably settled best by attention to both. Dining facilities, for example, must be provided as a service. However, the dining room may provide for development of the art of conversation, appreciation of dining etiquette, information about the principles of nutrition, and enjoyment of fellowship.

The process of registration, as another example, is a service to bring order and simplicity to the complex matter of beginning a term's program. In so far as it is organized to enable the student to accomplish the steps with dispatch and a minimum of fatigue, the emphasis is on service to the student. The college also attempts to give adequate assistance in program planning. This, too, may be looked upon as a service, but throughout the process the student, especially the prospective teacher, should be made aware of the educational goals to be achieved through a wise selection of courses and activities and of the problems and techniques of orderly registration. There are educational values here for him as a student and as a teacher.

A student who needs money and seeks the assistance of a student loan office may be served through the granting of a loan. He may also learn some valuable things from the loan experience as he establishes credit, maintains a good credit rating, or budgets personal finances, especially when the student loan officer has time and ability to act as a financial counselor. Although all students on a campus will not need the loan service, the loan program can be so administered, publicized, and reported that every student can learn to appreciate its service and understand the value of a good credit rating.

In similar manner each personnel service might be examined. Personnel services are provided for the student in part as education and in part as assistance to him in getting his education. In providing a service to individuals as they need it, the personnel worker or instructor is primarily concerned with the students being served. However, the college should endeavor to educate all of the student body concerning the human problems with which its services seek to deal. In the case of students preparing to be teachers they should also come to understand and appreciate the place a similar service may have later in their own schools. This objective applies not only to the three examples given, but also to all the personnel services and activities conducted by either special personnel workers or by instructors.

Separation of Student Personnel Services from, or Integration of Them with, Instructional Services

If a faculty chooses to emphasize the educational values of its personnel services as suggested above, then it faces the question of whether the services should be separated from or integrated with the classroom program. This is a problem in the definition of the curriculum and in the nature of the instructional experiences that the faculty recognize and draw upon. It also involves what one believes about the ways students learn.

In a well co-ordinated program of personnel work, especially where the various out-of-class experiences and classroom instruction are the curriculum, as proposed previously in this book, the instructor will find it convenient to call on other instructors and staff for much information about his students and to refer students to others for assistance. He may be able to draw upon the campus experiences in housing, in group activities, and in health promotion for illustrative material for his classroom work, or in certain courses he may be able to use the personnel services as a laboratory wherein his students may study and practice what he teaches.

At the same time such integration tends to diffuse personnel work beyond office walls and group activities so that its values become apparent to, and its services become used by, all students and faculty. The goals of teacher education as set forth in Chapters IV-VIII are also the objectives of personnel services. Whether the college decides to follow a centralized or decentralized form of organization of personnel services, the full value of the personnel work can be achieved only if there is close collaboration among all facult and staff who work with students in the college setting.

Student Personnel Services by Instructor or Specialist

Next there is the question of who should offer the personnel services for the student—the instructor or the specialist? In man colleges guidance of the prospective teacher is considered the concern of every faculty member. Counseling of his students has traditionally been considered a responsibility and prerogative to be cherished by the good teacher. The close personal relationship between a good teacher and his students fosters opportunities for such guidance. Every teacher-education student should experience this relationship as it furthers his own development and as he learns the need to achieve such relationships later in his own classroom.

The educational and personal counseling, essentially a learning process, needed by the majority of students preparing to teach is such as any good college teacher is qualified to perform. In doing so, due regard should be given, of course, to curriculum requirements, college policies, and the limitations of the student in his development of self-analysis and self-development. The college professor should be free to refer a student to other workers who he feels may be in a better position than he to help the student. Indeed he has an important role in discovering and referring students who require counseling beyond that which can be offered by a good teacher. These students may be referred to counselors who have the time, facilities, and training to work further with the students on an individual basis. Also, economy of the professor's time and energy demands that many matters of concern to a student be handled by someone designated to perform special services such as those dealing with housing, loans, recreational activities, and health.

Another personnel role which is usually undertaken by professors is that of serving as a faculty sponsor for a student activity. Here the special interest of the professor in some activity is capitalized upon and his leadership and experience are of great value to the group of students. Essentially his job is that of group leader, again a teaching situation. However, the student leaders in his group may need to be referred to other personnel workers on the campus who co-ordinate the use of facilities or provide some service the group may need to carry on its activity.

In many colleges professors in each teaching major or curriculum are designated as advisers to students in that major for the purpose of program planning. This is only one phase of educational and personal guidance and as stated above any good college teacher should be able to assume this responsibility. Here the professor's kindly interest in the student's goals, his use of information about the student made available through testing or other personnel service, and his thorough knowledge of curriculum requirements combine to help the student plan a program of studies fitting both his needs and his interests. Frequently the close relationship between adviser and advisee is one of professional interest in the same teaching curriculum. The adviser thus engages in a form of vocational guidance. In this capacity he is the specialist.

It seems reasonable to conclude that student personnel work will continue to be performed by both instructor and specialist. In the American college the faculty members have long concerned themselves with the educational and personal guidance of students. In a college where the faculty envisions an educational program such as that sketched earlier in this volume, its responsibilities for personnel work are extended. It is equally true that within such a program those portions of the college functions that were formerly regarded as services are drawn upon for the educational experiences they may offer. Housing, health, recreational, and admission specialists become personnel workers. Because some students require a great deal of individual assistance of a highly professional nature, the counseling specialist is also needed. Where size and complexity of student body are great, there may be need for other specialists. In the program for teacher education proposed in this book it is to be expected that the instructor and the specialist will work together in the educational program of the college.

Some Basic Principles for Effective Student Personnel Work in Teacher Education

In keeping with the philosophy of teacher education set forth in this book, there are some basic principles to guide the program of student personnel work. It is believed that the following principles will be in effect wherever a program meets the needs of faculty, administration, teaching profession, society, and above all the students preparing to be teachers.

Student personnel work is for all the students, and the faculty and staff engaged in personnel work are concerned with all the students. They endeavor to contribute to all facets of the students' development. To the extent they can contribute to the education of the student, their work is for all the students. For some students personnel workers must provide services as individually needed.

Personnel workers are concerned first with the development of the students, second with the prevention of difficulties and maladjustments among them, and last with the remedy of their academic, personal, and social problems. Where remedy is not feasible within the normal period of college education, the personnel worker (whether faculty adviser or counselor) tries to help the student transfer from teacher education to something more suitable.

Personnel workers endeavor to inculcate in the students an awareness of the values of personnel work in teaching and a desire to see the guidance services of the schools where they later teach carried on effectively.

Student personnel work involves the whole college—its teaching faculty, its administrators, its specialized staff, and its students. On each campus preparing teachers the program of services in keeping with the philosophy of the college is unique in organization, administration, and operation.

Student personnel workers serve students, instructional faculty, and administration. The service to faculty and administration is primarily for the facilitation of their endeavors to provide for better growth and development of the teacher the college is preparing. Research among the vast accumulation of records should be constantly in progress to provide answers to the many questions in teacher education being asked by students, faculty, and administration.

Student personnel work seeks to be integrated with the other parts of the educational process of the college, and is therefore thought of as a continuous program throughout the student's college life. Its purpose is to assist in the building of a well-prepared body of teachers, ready to meet the demands of our schools and our society.

The Assimilation of Students into Teacher Education

Articulation between high school and college for a student who plans to be a teacher may be simpler and more complete if the goal to be a teacher is reasonably well established early in high school. When this is the case—and usually it is not the case—it is possible that much of the student's work in high school may be directed toward his goal of teaching. If, however, the student's goal is not clear at the time of high-school graduation, or if his goal is likely to change after a short time in college, the process of articulation is more complex.

Colleges in their teacher-education programs often have been primarily concerned with the intellectual achievements and the teaching skills of their students. In recent years more attention has been given to the personal characteristics of the students even at the time of application for admission to teacher education. Practices providing for the assimilation of students into teacher education include recruiting, admission, appraisal, orientation, registration, and record-keeping. Usually these are thought of as phases of student personnel work although, as has already been shown, the college professor is likely to have an important role in some of them.

Recruiting for Teacher Education

To bring about better articulation from high school to college and to assist in sound recruitment to various professions, colleges are providing high-school students with recruitment services. Such programs are aimed primarily at encouraging students who show promise to prepare for various professions. If the student, as a result of recruitment and follow-up counseling, clarifies his own goals, he has benefited from the college's recruiting services. If in such programs the high-school student sees an opportunity in teaching for himself, then another person has been directed toward the necessary college preparation. If, on the other hand, he has only decided to seek a college education and enrolls in a regional or other multipurpose college, he is still a possible teacher candidate.

There is today a general need for recruitment for teacher preparation in order to increase the supply of teachers. High-school students and persons who have completed high school and found employment should be reached if they have the requisites for preparation as good teachers. So, too, should be those students who are pursuing liberal arts programs without clear-cut professional goals and those in professional schools who may seem to be more suited to the teaching profession. Recruitment should seek out, inform, and guide the potential teacher wherever the person may be found. Such recruiting activities may be provided as genuine educational experiences. The task will be great and the help of other agencies may have to be sought. This means that the recruiting services of the college must be directed toward others besides potential teachers.

Parents of high-school students are generally neglected in the recruiting process, yet it has been found they play an important part in the students' decisions to go to college to prepare for teaching. Rather than give out college literature at the time of a visit to a high school, recruitment personnel might better send it to the homes of students interested in the program. Another source of assistance is the active Parent-Teacher Association. Participation by parents in school life often causes the pupils to feel there is an added importance to the teaching profession when their own and other parents give so freely of their time and efforts to help the school and to provide scholarships for teacher-education students.

Alumni can be of valuable assistance in recruitment. Especially is it important to enlist the aid of teachers, counselors, and administrators in the high schools. In this, all college visitors to the schools —whether as guest speakers, judges, referees, recruiting officers, consultants, or casual visitors—should be ambassadors of good will. Many such persons can encourage students to become teachers. Especially should this be done when they identify some students with attributes generally considered desirable in teachers. Clubs of Future Teachers of America in the high schools are exclusively oriented toward teacher education. College chapters of the FTA with the aid of the college public relations and recruiting field men may assist in promoting the enrollment of high-school FTA club members in teacher-education curricula when entering college.

Professional organizations of various kinds recognize that their own future welfare is in part dependent upon an adequate supply of teachers for the younger generations. So do some social and service clubs. These groups may and should be approached by the recruiting service of the college to aid in promoting the enrollment of prospective teachers in college programs.

Recruitment can very well be a college-wide function. It requires a faculty-student-administration committee to study possible recruiting projects and to establish policies. The recruiting efforts of public relations workers, instructional departments, and others should be well co-ordinated, for lack of co-ordination may result in too many visits to some schools or junior colleges and none to others, in a confusion of ideas and feelings left with the student bodies, in a wasteful duplication of materials and publications, and in a generally "cooling off" effect on the three publics—the students, the parents, and the faculties.

More teachers are needed today. Enrollment increases are greatly taxing available school facilities. If more teachers are not soon returned to the profession, or more students prepared for teaching, the result will be larger classes and double or treble shifts with double duty for some teachers. Another side of this problem of urgency of recruitment is the question of whether or not sufficient manpower is available to recruit. Already approximately two per cent of the working population of the nation are in the teaching profession and competition among the various trades and professions for manpower is very keen.

The hope for future success in recruiting for teaching lies in marshalling all public schools, campus forces, and outside agencies in a concerted effort to uphold the dignity and worth of the profession and the subtle satisfactions it provides while taking careful note of all possible avenues for follow-up procedures. Especially important is it for the college to develop close, personal relationships with high-school faculties.

Care must be taken, however, not to burden the school with recruiting visits. State-wide councils of high schools and colleges might well be formed to co-ordinate the many activities initiated by either school or college which affect both. Much has been done in one state through such a council to cement the friendship of colleges and schools. Especially has the council been able to achieve a great improvement in the "College Day" programs of the state and the visiting activities of the various college representatives for recruitment purposes at the high schools.

In like manner, it is essential that college students who go into off-campus schools for student teaching or other field experiences should be ambassadors of goodwill among the high-school faculty and students. In the best interests of recruitment, the teaching profession, and the children, only those students who after careful screening are declared *prepared and suitable for student teaching* should be allowed to begin their practice. In their preparation for student teaching they should be counseled well on behavior, friendliness, adequate preparation, and their duty to represent both the college and the teaching profession as they enter the schools for supervised practice. Indeed, these students might play an important role in recruitment through disseminating literature about the teaching profession and other college careers in the high schools, through counseling and activity duties as a part of their student-teaching program, and by reporting to the college the names of students showing interest in going to college.

Selective Admission to Teacher Education

The aim in teacher education is the preparation of professionally competent teachers with good personal, social, and emotional characteristics. Competency in a professional sense and good characteristics in a personal sense are partly the outcome of the students' college education. They are also dependent upon the achievement and characteristics of the individual at the time he enters the teacher-education curriculum. When the students apply for admission the college staff as a whole and its student personnel workers in particular have heavy responsibilities to select for preparation as teachers persons whose characteristics and capacities to learn are those which we seek in teachers or which we can adequately develop through education.

The qualities and skills of a good teacher have been and probably will continue to be very difficult to determine because of the lack of a precise definition of good teaching. It has proved to be very difficult to control factors in the teaching situation sufficiently to measure their importance to teaching success and thus to determine criteria of teaching effectiveness. However, there does seem to be enough evidence to indicate that at the time of admission consideration should be given to the prospective student's health and physical vitality, to his intellectual capacity and scholastic achievement, to his interest in children or young people and his desire to teach them, and to the combination of personal-social-emotional qualities he exhibits.

In addition to these important classes of characteristics of teachers, there are others that must be considered when determining whether or not a student should attend college. These include his interest in college work, his financial resources, and the attitude of his family toward his attendance at college. The goal in selection for admission to teacher education is to admit students who have characteristics which appear to be suitable for teaching and who might reasonably well be expected to complete satisfactorily the program which the college provides.

Most colleges that admit freshmen to teacher education require them to be high-school graduates, whose health and physical stamina are shown by health history and medical examination to be good, and who have no serious speech defect. They usually require them to be recommended for college work by their high-school principals.

Admission to the program should imply promise of academic and teaching success. If the applicant does not have the potentialities for success, admission should be denied. If by law all high-school graduates are entitled to admission to state-supported colleges, those students seeking admission to the state teachers college should be carefully studied and counseled at the time of admission and throughout the program. For those students who do not come up to the level expected of persons preparing for teaching, the college has an obligation to inform the student of the matter at the earliest possible moment and to provide help in the search for a more suitable occupation. Today the faculty and staff in teacher education seek to avoid admitting the person definitely unsuitable for the teaching profession while recruiting and admitting all who might become good teachers.

The college or education department within a college frequently uses an application form, supported by a transcript of high-school or previous college work. It frequently includes the recommendation by the principal or high-school counselor, together with a rating by the counselor of the student's personal-social qualities. Provision is sometimes made on the form for the inclusion of any psychological test data the school may be able to give. In some communities the high schools are transmitting all personnel records (except a permanent record card) to the college in which the student enrolls. The advantages and feasibility of such a procedure might well be examined by more regional colleges and steps taken to encourage the high schools to pass along the records.

The second step in the admission clearance process is often the report of a medical examiner. The applicant provides a history of his health, and the medical examiner (either his own family physician or the college physician) reports on a college-supplied blank his present health status. Any student having health or physical defects which would make him unemployable as a teacher and which are not correctable in the space of time to be devoted to preparation for teaching should not be permitted to enroll in a teacher-education program.

Where circumstances of distance permit, some colleges require the student to come to the campus for conferences with the admissions officer, the faculty adviser, and possibly the counselor. Psychological or speech tests considered as desirable may be administered. An assessment may be made of general appearance and of personal and social characteristics. At the same time the student is becoming acquainted with the campus and with some of the faculty with whom he will be closely associated. In such conferences, the guidance of the student is begun.

The final decision of acceptance or rejection is usually made on the basis of all the evidence at hand. Where any doubt exists, the admission is tentative and the reason is made clear to the student. Such tentative admission is usually called admission with probationary status, although there is a tendency to use this status only with students who have demonstrated low academic achievement in high school or previous college work. To some extent the practice of "admission with probationary status" acts as a screening-out device. Some students prefer not to come if their admission is probationary.

On the other hand, there is a danger that the student admitted on probation may feel stigmatized, or may actually be looked down upon by others, including sometimes some of the faculty. Such conditions of course must be averted by good guidance by both faculty and personnel workers. The status should be operated as a cautionary yet guiding light toward the goal of academic and personal success.

The process of selection at admission should be carried out in such a manner that it is co-ordinated with the continuous process of selection or retention in effect throughout the student's college program. Where a student is admitted with what are believed to be correctable defects or deficiencies the guidance and personnel program may be so designed that the student receives the necessary assistance or takes the necessary steps to remove the deficiencies.

In teacher-education colleges which admit at the junior-year level only, a similar program of selection is often in effect. In these colleges the freshman-sophomore scholastic record supersedes the high-school record. Frequently such colleges have a program of pre-admission interviews for students who are coming up from the junior college on the campus.

Appraisal for Guidance Purposes

During the process of admission the teachers college appraises the data at hand and, within the policies of the college, decides whether to accept or reject the applicant. Following admission it is important to measure and assess some of the characteristics and abilities of those enrolled, comparing them with the normative group of the college. Such an appraisal for guidance purposes involves an examination of both strengths and weaknesses. Students who need special help may be referred to special clinics or counselors. Many others can be helped by their faculty advisers and by instructors. All can be helped to capitalize on strengths which will contribute to their success as teachers.

Student appraisal is made for long-term as well as immediate guidance purposes. It is a continuing matter, calling for the collection of information and evaluation throughout the college years. The purpose of the appraisal is the better understanding of the student by the instructors, advisers, counselors, and the student himself. With better understanding it is expected that the conditions for student development will be more favorable.

The process of appraisal for guidance purposes begins with a careful examination of the data in the application blank. It has already been suggested that this begin at the time of initial conference when the student is being considered for admission. The data may serve to determine choice of major and of faculty adviser, to pass on information to activity sponsors about students' interests, to notify remedial clinics and counseling staffs of students who may be in need of their services, to assist supervisors of housing to assign rooms to compatible persons, and to assist the faculty advisers and others to help the students plan programs, participate in challenging activities, obtain part-time employment or financial assistance, and join groups or meet persons of similar or complementary interests. All too seldom do colleges of teacher education make full use of the data at hand in the application blanks. In fact in many colleges, the application blank does not pass beyond some individual or committee which grants admission. Most certainly, the data in the form should be a part of the student's record and made available to the faculty adviser.

Another source for appraisal for guidance purposes is the student's health history and the report on his college physical examination. Frequently this information is kept in health office files closed to faculty advisers and other counselors. Medical confidences must be kept inviolate, of course, but it is desirable and necessary that the health service provide for the advisers and counselors health data pertinent to the student's welfare in the college program.

Most colleges of teacher education have a program of psychological testing usually administered at the time of admission to the college or shortly thereafter. In some colleges such tests are part of the process of determining suitability for admission; in others they are used only for the guidance of the students admitted on other criteria.

All of these measures and judgments are in themselves only small bits of evidence of the needs, desires, interests, qualities, abilities, and attitudes of the student. Used together they may be very helpful in the guidance phases of student personnel work. A student and his faculty adviser can better plan a program of studies and activities for the student if both make a careful appraisal of all facts at hand concerning the student. In fact, during such program-planning conferences additional data concerning needs and abilities, goals and interests, feelings and fears may be revealed.

It is desirable that as many as possible of the critical characteristics, abilities, and achievements form the basis for appraisal. Some can be measured objectively by means of standardized instruments; others

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can be judged by means of observation, reports and letters, interviews, and rating scales. Health; speech; academic abilities and achievements; personal, social, and emotional qualities; and interests in children or youth and in the teaching profession—all should be appraised as early as possible in the teacher-education program. Efforts should then be made to continue the process of appraisal throughout the teacher-education program.

In part such appraisal will be used to guide some students out of teacher education and to counsel others to remain in teacher education. Much of the appraisal should be self-appraisal by the student with the assistance of the faculty and staff. The major purpose is to help the students become as effective teachers as possible. It is necessary that the student know and understand his own strengths and limitations and sense the changes and progress he is making toward becoming a good teacher. At the outset of the student's college career, one of the first uses of the appraisal data will be to aid in the articulation of the student's life on campus with that of his high school.

Orientation of New Students to Teacher Education

A good orientation program for students in teacher education is based upon a philosophy which considers the student as a whole and endeavors to bring the whole college into the orientation process. Orientation is a continuous process, extending from high-school days, through college, to follow-up on the job. It is a process on the part of the student of becoming aware of a new situation and of meeting it with enlightenment and confidence. However, in the case of new students, special efforts under the leadership of personnel workers are generally made to facilitate the students' introduction into campus life—it is these efforts which are generally known as the orientation program for new students. Gradually, as the student becomes better acquainted the process of orientation merges with that of guidance by the faculty adviser and with the teaching programs of the instructors.

The orientation of the new student rightfully begins in high school (or in junior college if he is a transfer student). Much of the work of recruitment is orientation to teacher education—the literature sent to the home, the high-school counselor's talks with students, the work of the college field representative with high-school students, the visits to the campus, the letters of admission, and follow-ups to inquiries.

A number of teacher-education colleges indicated in their reports prepared for the AACTE intervisitation program that they have a group of carefully selected and trained student leaders who write personal letters to the newly accepted student as soon as the admissions or personnel office assigns the new student to the student leader. Usually this results in the exchange of letters once or twice prior to enrollment. These leaders also meet the students on arrival, introduce their assignees to each other, foster group spirit and friendship, discuss traditions and regulations with the group, try to make them feel at home in a friendly atmosphere, meet with them at scheduled times during the New Student Week program, introduce them to faculty, counselors, and administrators, and generally act as good friends welcoming them to a new social and cultural pattern of life. During New Student Week the student leaders get their small groups together for introductions. Many questions are asked and answered. The student leader reassures the new students and indicates clearly that certain questions—particularly about courses, academic requirements, and instructional programs—will be answered by *faculty members* during "the week." The student leader may have ten new students in his group with whom he continues to keep in touch either by informal group meetings or individual contacts through much of the first quarter or semester. This contact adds significantly to the continuity of the orientation process.

Some colleges reported that early in the pre-registration period the students are asked by the housing office to write personal letters telling about themselves as persons—their interests, hobbies, what kind of persons they think they are like, and something about their families. Attempts are then made to assign rooms to students who will be compatible roommates, according to the information contained in the letters. These letters are passed along to the dormitory counselors for reading prior to the arrival of the students. This usually makes the welcome at the dormitory more personal and the students begin to feel at home and to belong. Each soon discovers that the roommate shares some common interests and from the greeting given by the dormitory counselor he or she early learns that someone really did read the letter.

Some colleges reported that New Student Week helps the new students become acquainted with some of the faculty especially in their own fields of concentration or major, with key leaders among the upperclassmen, and with fellow students. In many colleges it is claimed that this week serves to introduce the students to their new environment; to learn of and understand their new educational program; to hear about and appreciate the college traditions, rules, regulations, activities, and services; and lastly to become sufficiently acquainted with the community and neighborhood facilities so that the student can "get around" easily.

Frequently during this week the college takes the opportunity to begin the appraisal for guidance purposes discussed previously. Finally, some colleges report that they look upon New Student Week as one means of beginning the process of developing the student's ability to follow directions, to assume responsibility for his academic and social welfare, and to become competent in making choices regarding his college life and his goal of teaching.

Practices commonly made part of the week include social events, assemblies, distribution of printed materials, orientation lectures, tours of the campus, tours of the community, receptions, visits to faculty homes, administration of psychological and proficiency tests, personal interviews, health examinations or clearances, program planning with advisers, parties, week-end camps, "buzz sessions," and free time. These activities are generally co-ordinated around the students' problems which involve three principal although overlapping areas: the academic, the emotional, and the tangible or material. Academically, he wants to know what classes he should take, when and where they will meet, what he must do to get ready for them, and how they fit together to meet eventual graduation requirements. His purpose in coming to college is primarily the academic program —he wants to get started on determining what it shall be. If his goal is not clear, he seems to be even more eager to get an exploration program planned. He needs time to meet his adviser, time to read the schedules and reread the catalogue, time to "talk over" goals with fellow students, and time to realize fully that he is embarking on preparation for teaching.

Emotionally, he is concerned about himself. He is in a new environment, among new friends, new advisers, and new counselors. He finds many students are uncertain, like himself. He wonders if he belongs—he wants to belong. He felt he had a place at home, in high school, at church, in the community, among relatives and friends. Now he is alone, among strangers, with different standards of expectation. He needs time to think through the activities, the meetings, the advising, the counseling. He needs the friendliness and the warmth of interested, understanding faculty members. He needs the companionship of his peers.

In the material sense, he needs housing that looks attractive, appears comfortable, and in which he sees possibilities of making it suit his personality. He must find banking or other financial facilities. He needs to know where and how to get medical attention. Many are the little material matters he must attend to.

Orientation is thus essentially a learning process and must follow the basic principles for good learning. At all times the student operates as a total being, and his academic, emotional, and material satisfactions are intermingled. Because learning is a long-time process, the orientation program is really a long-time process extending far beyond the New Student Week. The program is developmental in purpose, and orientation becomes a function of the whole college program. The processes of orientation may be best conducted by faculty, dormitory counselors, and student leaders for these are the persons whom the new students are most likely to see and get to know well during their years in college.

The orientation program for new students tends to lead directly into any orientation course or adjustment-to-college course provided for freshmen. Many colleges of teacher education have an orientation-to-teacher-education course in which the activities and learnings of the course are taught as psychological principles and practices which may be used as guides in elementary and secondary-school teaching. It is anticipated that the freshman year course in education in the curriculum proposed in Chapter VII will incorporate experiences providing for the better orientation of the student into the teacher-education program.

Registration and Record-Keeping as Processes in Student Personnel Work

The orientation of the new student during New Student Week leads into his registration for his first term's work. It is fitting that the orientation program of the week should do so, for the primary purpose of the student in coming to college is to begin work toward a college degree. The goal of registration should be a personalized program of studies related to the student's capacities and immediate needs as a freshman or transfer student. Usually faculty members participate as faculty advisers.

The value to the student of the registration period depends on the ability and training of the adviser to understand the student, to help him understand his own potential strengths and apparent weaknesses, to help him meet college regulations with an attitude of co-operation, to assist him in his choice of courses and out-of-class activities, and to help him to see professional goals more clearly.

The registration process is an important step in the guidance of the students.

Where the faculty members have deep concern for the students, the process of faculty advising and program planning will not be limited to the relatively few minutes of time available on registration day. For this reason the faculty advisers usually have opportunities during New Student Week to become acquainted with their new advisees and to be supplied with some of the data available from application blanks and the other procedures already discussed. In short, registration may be an inspiring, orderly process for the new student. At its close he may feel an exhilaration that now he is ready to begin a program of studies as nearly right for him as it can be.

It is desirable that the students planning to be teachers experience the best in preparation, keeping, and use of student records. Not only should they come to appreciate good records, but they should participate in making them. They should observe them being used with a minimum of labor and time by faculty, counselors, placement officers, and administration for the students' welfare as well as for the protection of the college and its accounting of its stewardship.

Records are kept in teacher-education institutions for several purposes: (1) to aid faculty and students in their planning, counseling, and guidance interviews, (2) to provide a means of evaluation of student progress, (3) to assist in the adequate placement of graduates, (4) to provide a means of evaluation of the college program, and (5) to aid in the administration of the college. Records are kept to be used by the student, by the faculty, and by the administration. In each case the focus of attention is the student. Preferably the records are simple, easily kept, yet as complete as possible.

A frequent question concerns the centralization of the records. The faculty adviser, counselor, dormitory director, health officer, department head, registrar, and placement officer may keep his own set of records. Admittedly there is nothing wrong, in fact it is highly desirable, that each of these persons keep accurate, up-to-date records of his conferences with the students. But it is necessary for each to know what the other is doing, has done, does know, or even thinks about a student. Consequently some simple system of communication or reports to a central records office is necessary. Traditionally the registrar's or recorder's office has the permanent record of courses and grades. All faculty members report grades to this central office for the permanent record. But it is noted in the AACTE reports that the temporary folder usually contains little other than correspondence between registrar and student, the approved application blank, and possibly the test scores. The folder should also contain brief reports about the student from any one who has pertinent information about him.

Communication seems to be the major difficulty in operating and using a system of records. Colleges of teacher education would do well to establish faculty committees to investigate the improvement of the system on their campuses, particularly as to student participation in record making and easier, greater use of the records by faculty and personnel workers.

Retention of Students in Teacher Education

Selection Processes for Retention of Students in Teacher Education

For the past decade there has been a great deal of attention given by educators of teachers to the idea of continuous selection throughout the program of preparation for teaching. The major emphasis in continuous selection is to *retain* in teacher education those students who ought to continue. While identification and counseling of the unsuitable will enable them to change goals and transfer to other vocational programs within or without the college, the students who are selected to remain in the program it is hoped will themselves wish to remain until they become qualified to teach in our elementary and secondary schools. The drop-out rate of students during the freshman and sophomore years in most institutions indicates that the colleges of education should examine carefully their services to the persons they have recruited.

Why are large numbers of freshman students in teacher education leaving the college before or at the end of the freshman year? One college, for example, had a drop-out rate among freshmen of 41 per cent in 1947–48, of 38 per cent in 1948–49, and of 44 per cent in 1950–51. In a follow-up study of the 1950–51 class of entering freshmen in this college, the reasons for withdrawal were reported in order of frequency as lack of finances, taking a full-time job, getting married, entering military service, and lacking interest in studies. Of the withdrawals in that class only 25 per cent were making low grades at the time of withdrawal and most of these were still eligible for probationary standing. Could the other withdrawals have been averted by better use of student personnel services? Was there a faculty member who knew one of these students, who was aware of his problems, and who informed him of the help the college could give? Did the students dropping out for financial reasons, for example, know about the possibilities of part-time work, of scholarships, and of loans? Did they know how to budget wisely the money they did have? In other words, did the students who dropped out who met the basic requirements for staying in teacher education make use of student personnel services to the fullest extent? What can personnel workers do for these students?

Definitely a college should have an exit interview between the student and a counselor as part of its process of clearance of withdrawals. Such an interview can explore the possibilities of retention or of return at a later date. Where the student has already been seeking help from adviser, dormitory counselor, and the personnel office, it is likely that all possibilities for remaining in college have been explored. In such cases it is probable that little can be done in the last or exit interview other than to record a reason for leaving which reflects the situation accurately. These interviews should provide adequate time to explore the situation very carefully. One teacher-education college reported that financial problems were very numerous but that the cause in most instances was a high standard of living which the students were trying to maintain. This did not mean that the standard should be lowered but that a better understanding of budgeting was necessary. Counseling on finances and budgeting in that college was believed to be more important in holding many students than were part-time employment, scholarships, or loans.

If "getting married" is the reason for leaving, the young couple (if both are students) can be encouraged to remain in college. More and more school systems are employing married women and married couples. If the man is not a student and the couple is planning to live in another community, the wife should be encouraged to transfer to a college within or near that community if one is available. An offer of assistance to transfer or a little information about the other college may be all that is necessary to retain her in teacher education.

It is recognized that most "drop outs" occur between semesters or quarters. Closer personal relationships between faculty and students as provided for in these proposed programs of instruction and personnel work may reduce the number who for various reasons fail to return. When, however, students go home at the end of the term and do not return, an immediate follow-up should be made. Its purposes should be to determine the reason, to inform the student when the next registration period will occur, and to encourage continuance in the program at a later date if the student is still believed to be a good candidate for teacher education. Some of the college's recruiting energy might well be directed to re-recruiting among drop-outs.

The process for retention of students has been described as a continuous process. This is correct in the sense that data of various kinds are coming in constantly for evaluation. Health examinations, counseling interviews, anecdotal reports, and similar tools and techniques are used to determine fitness for continuation in teacher education. For the majority of the students the check of qualifications with due regard to individual differences can be made at definite intervals. Commonly selection has been made according to the AACTE reports at admission to college, at the end of every quarter or semester through probationary and suspension policies, at the close of each academic year through requirement of a progressively higher minimum grade average, at entrance to any sequence of professional education courses, at entrance to student teaching, and at time of certification shortly before graduation.

As at admission to college, the process at these intervals should assess the qualifications of the student in the several areas of academic achievement, health, interests, and personal-social-emotional qualities. Continuous upgrading and broadening of the student teacher's various achievements should be the chief goal of these selective checks. Furthermore, it is most important to note and assess the student's changes in behavior and progress toward those attitudes and qualities the college believes to be necessary for good teaching. Care should be taken to encourage those students who show promise of becoming good teachers to remain in the program. It should be remembered that usually the highest withdrawal rates are at year-ends. Consequently the retention phase rather than the elimination phase of selection should be emphasized by faculty and personnel workers.

Similarly at the time of entrance to professional sequences or of admission from junior to senior college, attention may be given to all aspects of teacher growth. As the student later approaches the time for approval for student teaching his record of total progress may again be reviewed. There are colleges which have a clearance procedure for student teaching which not only uses all data available in the student's personnel record at that time but also requires clearance by the instructor in charge of the earlier professional courses and by the faculty adviser with regard to adequate subject-matter preparation. It is a time when a student may, with the help of an adviser, engage in thoughtful self-evaluation. The major purpose of these clearances is to assess the student's readiness for student teaching. The student's interests in children or youth, in teaching as a profession, in the subject or skill he will teach, together with his abilities in interpersonal relations, are important considerations to be made in determining his readiness for student teaching.

Finally, the last phase of selection is reached: Does the student meet requirements for certification as a teacher? The college may have the power to certify or it may simply have the right to recommend to a state board that a certificate be granted. State requirements for certification are usually subject-matter and professional areas, satisfactory health based on a physical examination, and demonstration of certain personal and social qualities commonly thought to be necessary for successful teaching. Any faculty committee on certification or the certifying officer of a college has a unique responsibility—to decide whether the product of teacher education is at last prepared for the profession. The college needs to have a definite policy on the standard of teaching effectiveness its graduates should have demonstrated as they enter the field as beginning teachers. Little evidence appears in the AACTE visiting committee reports that this exists at present. The real evidence of success comes in the field, of course, but the college should not certify or recommend for certification a student who has not already demonstrated at least the minimum competencies necessary for good teaching.

If the college believes a student can eventually become a competent teacher, even though he is not one at present, it should continue him in the program through extra terms if necessary. If by the time of graduation the college decides the student is not qualified to teach and furthermore has demonstrated that all previous expectations by which he was retained in teacher education are no longer tenable, then in the best interests of the profession and of society the college must decline to recommend certification for the student. Consequently, the college must guard against being overzealous in its efforts to retain students in teacher education. The whole college should look carefully from time to time at its various selection policies and procedures to make sure that the process operates as a co-ordinated whole with the welfare of the student and the needs of the profession uppermost as goals.

Educational Guidance and Counseling by Faculty and Other Personnel Workers

Probably important factors in holding students in teacher education and encouraging enthusiasm toward the teaching profession are the good teaching and the guidance which they experience in the college. Educational guidance and counseling are intended for all students in teacher education. As part of their program they should experience both personally and professionally the values of educational guidance and counseling, as provided both within and without the classroom. Data-gathering devices such as tests of reading skills, check lists of study skills, and achievement tests may be used in supplement to the initial appraisal program.

In most teacher-education colleges students admitted on probation or students placed on academic probation at the close of a term are provided counseling services. Such counseling may be part of the duties of faculty advisers if teaching load is proportionately reduced, if the adviser is selected with this duty in mind, and if adequate in-service assistance and training are provided for the instructor. This counseling, on the other hand, may be the responsibility of the professionally trained counselors in a central counseling office. If academic probationary counseling is done in this office only, it may well take the major portion of the counselors' time with serious neglect of other counseling duties. To avoid this, one method is to have the academic probationary counseling done by the faculty advisers but with the more complex academic cases handled by counseling specialists when the adviser deems referral desirable.

Some of the problems of students as frequently discovered through academic probationary counseling are these: lack of clear-cut objectives, inability to choose appropriate courses, failure to make good use of study time, lack of adequate study skills, lack of understanding of potential abilities, poor social adjustment with consequent fear and worry, lack of motivation, and low scholastic ability. It is readily observed that such problems need for their solution more than one casual visit by the student to a faculty adviser or a counselor. For example, suppose the problem is inability to choose appropriate courses. The first visit may result in a choice being made by the student with the advice or help of the faculty member, but it is not likely that the student's *inability* to make choices has been removed or appreciably changed. Much of the work, therefore, of the faculty adviser will be of a symptom-removing nature whereby the student is able to get over the immediate hurdle and seek further help through subsequent counseling interviews or through referral to special clinics.

Much time can be spent by faculty advisers and counseling staffs in guiding and counseling students with low academic achievement. But the average student must not be forgotten. It is probably with these students that the faculty advisers do their best work.

The problems tend to be questions about academic load, course sequence, choice of electives—the concerns of program planning—where adequate attention needs to be given to individual differences. Where requirements are carefully and clearly stated in the college catalogue, these students can follow them and with the help of their advisers tend to plan a program of studies which meets their needs. Although they appear to know where they are going and their initial questions are easy ones, if they are observed more closely they may be found to welcome help as they explore ideas or weigh their judgments and values. If the adviser's purpose is to help each student realize his greatest potential as a teacher, then guidance efforts directed toward these persons may be most productive. It may be, too, that these students without apparent academic difficulties may reveal other problems. They may need financial assistance, desire greater participation in the social life of the campus, require a health check-up, or desire other personnel services. The alert faculty adviser may be in a position to help the student if only through his kindly interest and his knowledge of where special help may be found.

Students of outstanding academic achievement should not be neglected in educational guidance. These students may be outstanding for any or all of several reasons: high scholastic aptitude, high motivation, and very good study skills. One goal in educational guidance and counseling among these students is to encourage those of high ability to achieve outstandingly. Guidance in broadening their programs is important so they may take their rightful place in leadership in the teaching profession and in their communities.

One teachers college reported that outstanding students (B average or better) are permitted to carry an extra course load each quarter while maintaining the B average. The intention of such a practice is to enable a student to take a wider program, to have more elective courses, to study some of the academic courses he wants to study, or to be more active in the choruses, bands, dance, or other cultural or activity courses. Probably the first task of the adviser and outstanding student is to explore the student's needs. If together they decide an expanded program is desirable such a plan might be followed. Undoubtedly there would be some outstanding students whose greatest needs would be better met by a more active participation in social and athletic activities. But without good educational guidance by the adviser, the outstanding student in this day of speed and short-cuts, may look upon the privilege of extra course load as a means of reducing the length of his stay in college. In other words, he tends to be working toward credits for graduation instead of credits for education. If such is the thinking of our outstanding students, there is a big job for advisers, counselors, and instructors to teach the real meaning and purpose of education. Especially is this important among the outstanding students in teacher education.

Furthermore, outstanding students should be identified early in order that they may be guided to see the opportunities for advanced study, for study in foreign countries, and for exchange teaching. Early in their program they should be aware of the scholastic requirements for these opportunities, such as knowledge of foreign languages or prerequisite work for graduate study. Generally, the student leaders on teacher-education campuses are among the above average and outstanding students academically. But not all outstanding students are leaders or even participants in the social life of the campus, in the more academic activities of publications and forensics, or in service projects of student organizations for the college and community. Educational guidance should enable the outstanding student to see the many values of these forms of college life.

Some colleges provide their students with educational guidance and counseling through the use of special clinics for remedial reading, remedial English, speech improvement, and study skills. Every student in teacher education should have the experience of seeing and understanding the accomplishments of such clinics. Anyone in need of remedial work, or wishing to improve although not in dire need, should have the opportunity to use the clinics. Other clinics of an exploratory nature should also be available where a student might learn of abilities he did not suspect in such fields as art, music, crafts, and physical skills.

Finally, educational guidance services play a part in preparation for eventual placement as teachers. The choice of majors and minors, of electives, and of activities is important in the resulting product. A well-balanced education with some area of special interest and preparation, together with skills and techniques of teaching, is the foundation for the well-prepared teacher.

Vocational Guidance in Teacher Education

The vocational guidance of students for the teaching profession involves first the education of the student body in general in matters pertaining to the profession. This objective is frequently sought in the classroom in a course in education and supplemented by the activities on the campus of such groups as Future Teachers of America, the Association of Childhood Education International, and such honorary education societies as Phi Delta Kappa, Pi Lambda Theta, and Kappa Delta Pi. Clubs and societies related to specific teaching fields may reach some more students and provide group experiences of educational value pertaining to the teaching vocation. These groups provide opportunities for participation and practice in learnings contributing to the development of the individual.

On a more individual basis vocational guidance is generally provided as a service. There are many students in education who are undecided about becoming teachers or about what they wish to teach. Furthermore, there are many students in other disciplines in multi-purpose colleges who are good prospective teachers who have not actually chosen a profession. All these students should be reached with occupational information and guidance, partly by classroom teachers who teach the wide vocational uses of the subject matter being studied, and partly through the student personnel work performed by faculty advisers, registrars, counselors, and placement workers. One of the most important factors in this guidance is the example of good teaching, personal interest in students, and professional pride shown by the faculty. The results of tests of special aptitudes, interest inventories, and personality scales might well be used together with the results of the earlier appraisal program by advisers or counselors when providing vocational guidance for the students.

In preparation for student teaching, personnel work offers many group activities which may be used as socially developmental media, as learning and teaching laboratories, or as opportunities for leadership development. Such group activities include study and research clubs, social clubs and fraternities, service organizations, hobby clubs, speech and drama groups, and religious organizations. Classroom instructors, as suggested in the chapter on field experiences, have excellent opportunities to relate these group activities to their instructional program and to use them as laboratories for the guidance of students in the development of professional attitudes and skills. Individual students, found by the student teaching office to be lacking some qualities deemed desirable before assignment to student teaching, might well be helped by referral to a group sponsor who can provide for the necessary learning experiences through his group's activities. A group sponsor, generally chosen from the faculty by the group for his interest and leadership abilities, should be on the alert to guide the group and the individual within the group in the educational and professional values to be derived from the group activity. The personnel work of a good sponsor among the group members may be very effective in keeping a student in college and in teacher education. Group activities offer opportunities for practice of skills and other learnings leading to readiness for student teaching.

The registrar's office together with the faculty advisers may provide the individual student with much in the way of vocational guidance. Clarity of teaching goal, information and appreciation of desirable areas of preparation for it, understanding of college requirements for graduation in the chosen area, and the preparation for certification are goals toward which these workers help the student. Such guidance can contribute much to sure and steady progress toward professional efficiency.

Finally, the professional guidance offered by placement workers should assist the student in two ways. The student body and the faculty should be kept informed of the supply and demand situation for teachers, of changing requirements for certification in different states, and the economic status of the profession. The student as an individual may seek information and advice from the placement worker as to his employability in certain teaching fields, geographical areas, or grade levels. The vocational guidance services of the registrar, the faculty adviser, the student teaching officer, and the placement worker should be well co-ordinated. A most important part of the work of placement is the development within the student of a strong appreciation of the value of a good set of credentials, the ethics of references, and the professional ethics relating to contracts. Placement services should educate as well as serve the student. Their educational resources should be made available to all students in the college, and their value should not be limited to the placement of students.

Physical and Emotional Development through Health Services

To contribute to the development of the student physically and emotionally is an important role of the health and physical education department of the college for teachers. The work of such a department is essentially instructional and reaches the whole student body. The faculty of the whole college, however, invariably finds opportunities to refer individual students to the health service or clinic for examination and perhaps treatment. Especially do the faculty advisers and other counselors have opportunities to learn that a student needs the help of the health service. The health service through its health counseling, medical examination, and treatment, is able to contribute to the education and development of the teacher-to-be.

Where the college has a laboratory school, the health and physical education department can utilize the health service or clinic as a practice laboratory for health and first-aid classes, with students assisting the clinic in its examinations of laboratory school children. Similarly the clinic might serve as an observational laboratory for some students from psychology classes.

Especially can the health service through remedial and preventive measures be of service to the individual. The aim of such services should be to make certain that each teacher is physically and mentally fit for the teaching profession. Fitness should be based on criteria determined by the faculty. General health, stamina, emotional stability, physical defect or handicap, eyesight, and hearing should probably be considered most carefully in setting standards for approval. As students are discovered with disabilities which do not respond to treatment or which probably cannot be treated successfully within the time of the college program, such students should be considered for immediate elimination from the teacher-education program. The process of such elimination should be through the medium of counseling services with due regard to helping the student seek preparation for another vocation.

Furthermore the health service should work in close co-ordination with all counseling services the college may have. Referrals may be two-way: from the counselor to the health service, or from the health service to the counselor. In the latter case, the referrals might be made for persons showing emotional instability not caused by organic disturbances and not serious enough to need psychiatric care.

Personal and Social Growth through Student Personnel Work

Although personal and social growth does take place in the classroom, the greater opportunities for such development occur in experiences with housing and social activities included in the curriculum described in earlier chapters of this book but not generally associated with classroom instruction. However, it has been maintained throughout these chapters that such activities may provide field experiences for classroom instruction. Probably the educational values to be derived from these activities are the practice of principles learned in the classroom, and the development socially and personally that occurs as such practice takes place.

The group-living experiences of the dormitory, the fraternity or sorority house, and the co-operative house under the guidance of carefully chosen and adequately trained house mothers, counselors, sponsors, and dining-room hostesses bring to many students a new vista of ways of life. As students from differing cultures, home backgrounds, religious beliefs, and economic levels come together in common living quarters, they may develop feelings of acceptance, of tolerance, and of poise. They may be helped to learn the courtesies and arts of getting along with others. With wise guidance by the personnel workers in these living quarters they may learn to be staunch in defense of their convictions, to compromise without retreat from their convictions, and to judge only when all available evidence is at hand.

Although much can be done by a good house mother or dormitory counselor for the development of the individual student, one important job will be the referral of students needing the assistance of others on the campus. Frequently this person can arrange for the student to seek the help of such persons as his faculty adviser, the loans adviser, a counselor, or someone at the health service or study skills clinic where such is available on the campus.

The all-college activities such as homecoming, dances, dramatic presentations, and athletics provide the student with relatively nonstructured events which are similar to those of his high school. Here he has an opportunity to be more natural, to practice with greater anonymity new modes of behavior and etiquette which he has been learning are desirable, and to feel a warmth and appreciation of belonging to a large body of students bound together by the traditions of the college. As a teacher-to-be he should learn the values of school spirit, the bond of comradeship, and above all the wealth of talent, leadership, and working qualities generally to be found among a group of students.

As a member of the campus he sees student government in action and has the opportunity to develop in an atmosphere of academic ideals the personal and social attitudes, responsibilities, and skills necessary for good government. In teacher education this phase of student activity should be diligently fostered. The faculty should endeavor to promote good student government, the arts and science of citizenship, and above all the active participation by all students. Self-government should be the ideal within the framework of the laws and regulations of the college. Good student government can play a major role in encouraging the college to keep its rules and regulations in line with modern customs and social philosophy. The teacher-to-be should not only develop as a good citizen of the campus and participate to the full in his rights and responsibilities as a citizen, but he should at graduation be ready to guide his pupils in the ways of good citizenship and pupil government. The faculty may wish not to recommend certificates for students who do not show growth in campus citizenship to the point of readiness to assist with good student government in the elementary and secondary school.

Leisure-time activities, including special interest and hobby groups, offer excellent opportunities for teachers-in-preparation to practice social and personal skills and to learn good attitudes. These activities offer many opportunities for faculty members to come into friendly social relations with students, to get to know them better, to aid them to develop personally and socially through activities in which they have common interests. As students learn of the pleasures and insights to be gained from such activities, especially through the friendship and guidance of a faculty member, they are more likely to be ready to carry the same friendly interest into their own teacher-pupil relationships. At the same time the faculty member who participates wholeheartedly in such leisure-time activities will benefit from the feeling of comradeship with the students.

Further personal and social growth of the student should occur through the religious activities available to him on the campus. The chaplains or religious directors work directly with individual students or groups of students, yet may reach only a limited number of the student body. But the spiritual growth of teachers-to-be is of great importance. The development of spiritual insights and values is essential among teachers if they are to fulfill their place in the classroom as leaders of young children and adolescents in whom they will try to develop moral and spiritual values. The better development and practice of these insights during preparation for teaching depend on the co-ordination of classroom instruction, religious group activities, and religious counseling. The students need to become aware of the spiritual influences and insights which have permeated our cultures and influenced our bodies of knowledge such as philosophy, psychology, history, music, art, and literature. Teachers-to-be should be privileged to know something of the spiritual insights and values held by their instructors as revealed through their teaching of the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and the arts. It is hardly sufficient in this time when so many are seeking those deep affirmations of faith common to all religions or denominations that an instructor be merely intellectual and scholarlike in his teaching. His regard for the importance of spiritual and moral values among his students should be evident.

The religious groups or fellowships, identified usually with some church, directed by a chaplain, and sometimes having fellowship centers or houses, provide for those students who desire an active program of religious participation. Such a group also provides opportunities for enlightenment of its members, in terms of their own faith, regarding the spiritual insights and values they encounter in their academic studies. Possibly one of the important goals of such groups is to give the students an opportunity to understand the universality of religion while keeping themselves in touch with the traditions and values of their own faith. Also the group allows for the further study and practice of insights learned by the nonchurchman as a result of good teaching if he cares to attend the group's meetings. An important group on a campus is the council representing all the fellowships which is a base for intercommunication and understanding among the religious groups.

Counselors—whose help is sought by students—have an excellent opportunity to exemplify spiritual understanding and to aid the student in seeking for a deeper reality to enhance his faith and effort. The counselor's deep sense of spiritual and moral values and his exemplification of them make his work especially meaningful to the student, regardless of the problem being studied together.

Spiritual growth requires time for meditation and contemplation of things spiritual. It requires opportunities to reflect on the spiritual significance of life. It requires an atmosphere of permissiveness across the campus and a feeling that spiritual understanding is a desirable goal to achieve. The teacher's influence upon the child or youth will be much more significant if, as a college student, his experiences have helped him find satisfying spiritual orientation for his own life.

Individual counseling of students preparing to be teachers is of value to the student in two ways: as a learning experience in the methods of counseling, and as a means to his better development according to the purpose of the counseling activities. Problems in personal and social growth which hinder the student in his relations with others and in his acceptance of himself need time and individual attention for improvement. Often the college teacher is not in a position to give the needed assistance either because of the time and energy required or because of lack of knowledge or training necessary to act as counselor. The professionally trained counselor—essentially a specialist—is able to assist this student.

Although most students in teacher preparation who seek out counselors do so for the avowed purpose of improving their academic achievement or of getting help on the question of teaching as a vocational choice, the greater part of a counselor's work is actually with problems of personal and social development. The outcomes of such counseling are likely to be in proportion to the time made available for counseling duties; to the professional training of the counselor; to the qualities possessed by the counselor in the form of integrity, courage, and strength of character; to the counseling environment permeating the "office"; and to the availability of professional instruments and guidance literature. It is desirable that counselors be freed from administrative duties which so frequently burden personnel workers.

Close personal relationships of these counselors with the classroom instructors, faculty advisers, activity sponsors, and administrative personnel tend to insure co-ordination of efforts so necessary for the successful counseling of students. Every teacher-to-be should experience the values, procedures, and co-ordinated effort behind counseling in order to appreciate better the need for it and the operation of it in his later teaching job.

The provision of *financial aids* for students is a form of personnel work. These aids include scholarships, loans, part-time employment, and financial counseling. Every student teacher needs to understand the operation of financial services, the availability of scholarships and other aids to graduating high-school seniors, the advantages and disadvantages of part-time work programs, the importance and operation of credit ratings, and the problems of budgeting and its relation to the standard of college living. For this reason all students preparing for teaching careers should learn of the available financial services and how they function. As assistance to some students, the services will help those in need of money—either temporarily or as a long-term matter.

As enrollment in teacher education continues to expand, a college may need to examine carefully its scholarship and grants-in-aid programs, its loan fund operations, and its student employment services. For example, in the past thirty years there has been a great increase in the number of students who seek part-time employment. In some communities the job opportunities may not keep up with the demand from the increased enrollment. It is quite likely that more financial counseling will be necessary, with better budgeting by the student of his available funds. Financial services will continue to play an important role in the personal and social growth of many students and in their ability to remain in college.

The Transition from Teacher Education to the Professional Field

Student personnel work in teacher education has been described as a continuous process. It may be said to extend from the high school through college into the teaching field. Certain experiences during the college program and some services of a personnel nature are provided by most colleges to facilitate the transition of the certificated graduates from college to the teaching position.

Two important experiences which have been a part of the curriculum in teacher education for many years and which are major parts of the program proposed earlier in this book have contributed much to bringing about a better transition from college to the teaching position. These are student teaching and student participation in community activities and welfare work.

These experiences take the student while yet a member of the college into the school and community. They provide him opportunities to associate with the teaching staff and to see and learn about the many aspects of the work of teaching not thought about or observed in the college classroom. In off-campus student teaching the student is brought more extensively into contact with the working conditions and problems of the profession. During the program of community activities which generally is participated in by the student before and during his student teaching, he enters into at least one of the many avenues of community affairs.

Student personnel work may make certain contributions in connection with the programs of student teaching and community activities. The instructional and supervisory staffs of these learning experiences may seek the assistance of personnel workers in selection of students for the various activities, in problems of financial aid for unexpected expenses, in matters concerning housing contracts while absent from the campus, and in counseling regarding emotional disturbances revealed by or during the off-campus experiences. Again the personnel workers stand ready as resource persons to assist the instructional and supervisory faculty in their efforts in the all-round development of the students, in providing practice for them, and in making them ready for their responsibilities as good teachers.

Later, as the teacher approaches the time of graduation and certification, placement services become very important. Even in the early years of the teacher's education, the placement bureau may keep the prospective teacher up-to-date on matters of demand for and supply of teachers, of salaries, and of trends in the teaching profession. The bureau may teach the value of a good set of credentials, encourage students to register with the office, and instruct them in the preparation of credentials and the obtaining of references.

When the credentials are in order, the bureau may teach the students how to make application for teaching positions and how to study a community and school to see whether they fit the teacher. At the same time the student should be encouraged to analyze his strengths and weaknesses to determine how well he might fit into a school system. The placement bureau may teach the students in matters of interviews with school employment officials, of the making of contracts, and of the professional ethics of contractual relationships. In the discussion of curriculum earlier in this volume such instruction is provided for, and the placement officers are to be called as resource personnel into the classroom. The placement bureau, of course, helps the student contact school officials who are seeking teachers. It arranges for interviews on the campus and generally tries to bring teacher and school together to the mutual advantage and satisfaction of both.

After the new teacher is engaged in the field, another aspect of personnel work, that of *follow-up,* is sometimes undertaken by the college. It is most desirable that follow-up contacts be made with the teachers in the field. Studies of successes, failures, and problems of graduates may be conducted by members of academic departments, of the placement bureau, or of other personnel offices. The improvement of curricular offerings and personnel work may be the outcome of such follow-up studies. The ultimate evaluation of teacher education is the effectiveness of the product in the field.

The follow-up may also take the form of assistance from the campus to teachers in the field. Bulletins may be sent during the first year of teaching and institutes may be held at centers convenient for beginning teachers. These teachers may submit questions or problems for consideration in the bulletins or at the institutes. From time to time the new teachers may be invited to visit the campus for question-answer workshops. Faculty members—both instructional and service members—may visit the beginning teachers on the job. Faculty advisers may be able to take along one or two advisees on such visits. Such activities may improve teaching effectiveness and may make the transition from college to the job easier and happier. Follow-up activities may be a force in holding teachers in the profession more years, thereby helping with the demand and supply problem. The values of follow-up accrue to the graduate, the college, the school, and society. Like other personnel services, placement and follow-up require the co-operation of the whole campus to be most effective.

The Improvement of Student Personnel Work in Teacher Education

The Development of a Student Personnel Program

Development of an effective student personnel program requires the co-operative efforts of administration, faculty, and student body. Co-operative planning will insure the program fitting the institution. It will give the whole faculty an understanding of the need for, the operation of, and the value of personnel work. It will foster among the students desirable attitudes toward all the services. Participation in personnel work by a large proportion of the faculty and students is probably a matter of effective communication between the workers in the personnel field and the users of the services. The personnel office may well issue regular bulletins describing services, pointing up changes in college regulations, and giving information about supply and demand in the teaching profession. Occasional meetings of the faculty may be devoted to discussion of personnel services, with the personnel committee (of faculty and students) taking the lead in the discussion and the various officers in the student personnel department acting as resource persons. The advising or counseling program of the faculty advisers will be promoted and improved through an in-service study program conducted under the sponsorship of the head of personnel services.

The root of co-ordination of personnel services and integration of them with instructional and other academic activities is communication. Many teacher-education institutions might look carefully at their communication systems for there have been frequent reports that student personnel workers failed to keep the faculty members sufficiently informed to enable them to use the personnel services for the fullest benefit of the student. Student personnel work in colleges has been a rapidly growing field of study. There is a constant stream of research being reported. In order that the persons engaged in personnel work may perform in a professional, effective manner, they must keep abreast of development in the fields. They need to read, study, and experiment, and above all they must consult frequently with their fellow-workers. The staff in the personnel office must meet periodically to discuss the techniques, theories, and other developments reported in the literature. To such meetings the faculty and student leaders should be invited. Data determined in such meetings to be of particular import to the college and its student body might then be summarized in the personnel office bulletin for distribution to the whole faculty. A well-informed faculty and student body have little criticism of personnel services that is not of constructive value to the students, the faculty, or the services themselves.

In order that student personnel work may be efficient, the college must provide for professionally prepared staff, facilities, and materials. The workers must have sufficient time allotted in their total working load for adequately handling their personnel duties. Professionally prepared counselors are needed for a professional job of counseling. Well-qualified individuals should conduct the health services, the remedial clinics, the activity programs, the housing and dining services, the financial aid programs, and the admissions and records services. The program of personnel work should be considered important and essential to the total college program, and adequate budget, staff, time, space, and equipment should be provided. In teacher education today there are some colleges which can point with pride to the personnel services—their staff, their space and equipment—and can show a co-ordinated program being effectively used by students and faculty. At the same time there have been many reports which indicate a serious lack of facilities and trained personnel and an overload of duties on willing workers. As teacher education moves into a period of increasing enrollments, of increasing demands for its graduates, of demands for still more effective teachers caused partially by the general overcrowding of schools and classrooms, the pressures on personnel services are likely to become so great that it would be wise now for administrations and faculties to begin building rapidly and efficiently their personnel staffs and facilities. These provisions should not overlook a matter of major importance, namely, allowing time in the teaching load of each faculty person to provide individual help to advisees as an integral part of the instructional program.

There seems to be in some teacher-education institutions a definite need to establish in the minds of everyone concerned definite purposes for the existence and continued growth of the personnel services including the duties of the director, the faculty advisers, the professional counselors and deans, and in general to clarify the whole program of personnel services so that each member of the faculty can envision the central, integral role of guidance within the total college and his part in it.

At all times there should be a plan for the orderly development of the personnel services on the campus. Rare is the college of teacher education which has a personnel program that could be called ideally effective for its circumstances. No college is likely to have at hand the funds and plant, as well as personnel, necessary to approach the ideal. Nor is it likely that the college faculty and student body are prepared to create and integrate a total program of personnel services in one sudden movement. Progress in development should be no faster than its acceptance by faculty and students. But the faculty should early work out a plan of action to implement over a period of time a program of personnel services which fits the needs of the college and its students. Evidence from the AACTE committee reports indicates there is an awakening on the part of many teacher-education institutions to the realization of the values of a better personnel program. In the interests of economy and of student welfare a long-term developmental program should be planned.

In-service Training in Student Personnel Work

It is essential that some opportunity be provided for the in-service training and assistance of faculty members in their advising and counseling work. That such training is not frequently offered seems to be a conclusion to be made from a perusal of the recommendations of the AACTE visiting teams. The in-service training should be available to all faculty members in order to develop a better understanding of the whole program and of each person's specific function in it. This purpose is largely a matter of information and may be met, as is done on several campuses, by the issuance of a faculty manual. Another method is the frequent distribution of a student personnel work bulletin, either as a supplement to the manual and specifically referring to it by page or as a substitute for the manual in which case the bulletins might be prepared suitably indexed for filing in a binder.

The in-service training program should, in particular, reach all who are designated as faculty advisers or faculty counselors in order to provide them with an opportunity to learn the understandings, skills, and appreciation necessary to perform their duties well. The program also provides them with a body of factual knowledge of scholastic rules and regulations, test score meanings, and general information about the student body. Students in teacher education have frequently reported that their advisers are good at program making in their major fields but that for assistance in planning for minor areas and electives and for counseling in personal-social matters they are usually left to find by themselves sources of guidance. The in-service training program for advisers should enable them to meet these students' needs for counsel beyond the major field, or if the adviser feels inadequate to handle the problem as stated by the student, to facilitate his referral to a counselor in the personnel office.

The in-service training program in personnel work should also be provided for persons directly engaged in student personnel work, such as counselors, psychometrists, registrar, placement workers, housing supervisors, activities supervisors, and dormitory counselors. In student personnel work there is a rapidly growing body of knowledge, techniques, skills, and appreciations. Much is being done in research in student personnel work. The in-service training program is a means of enabling the worker to keep up with the large volume of reports appearing in new books and periodicals, to discuss the findings as they might apply to the college, faculty, and student body, and to try out techniques which seem to be of value.

Thus there may well be three phases of the program operating concurrently—one for faculty members generally, one for faculty advisers, and one for personnel workers. All phases should of course be open for participation by the whole staff. One purpose of the bulletin to faculty members would be to announce far enough in advance the purpose of a meeting, demonstration, book review, film showing, or discussion to be held as part of the in-service training program and to invite anyone to attend.

As stated previously, few teacher-education colleges appear to have an effective in-service training program although it was reported that such programs were needed. Sometimes when attempted the program has failed. The following seem to be some of the causes for the failure to begin or to carry to success the needed in-service training programs in student personnel work: failure to recognize the real concerns and problems of the faculty, inadequate supervision of the program, failure to let the program stem from the committee on student personnel work, inadequate pre-publicity among faculty, lack of closeness between student personnel administrator and his staff or faculty, poor training facilities, inadequate understanding of gains to be made by participation, fear or distaste of starting in a small way, lack of co-ordination in the different methods used, academic competition, and feelings of an already overloaded or busy faculty toward an imposed program. Yet in some colleges of teacher education in-service training programs seem to flourish.

Guiding Principles for In-service Study Programs

Certain principles appear to be in operation on such campuses regarding the establishment and success of an in-service training program for personnel work within the institution:

1. The chief student personnel officer as representative of the administration of the college assumes the major responsibility for initiating, promoting, and supervising the program of the in-service training.
2. The program begins at the level of training where the participants for the most part are.
3. Gradually the faculty takes a greater part in the planning of the program, and their personnel problems, interests, and needs come to determine the specific objectives of the program.
4. The training is integrated with the participants' jobs. Theory and practice are carried on at the same time.
5. The program is held within regular working hours. The administration recognizes that counselors and others engaged in personnel work need to devote considerable time to professional study and preparation as does the teaching faculty.
6. The administration recognizes the need for training space, facilities, and equipment, and provides the books and professional magazines in student personnel work which the teaching faculty would not ordinarily use. Mechanical equipment such as recording machines is provided, also rooms with one-way screens for observation, projectors and screens for presentation of data in meetings, graphic supplies, office machines for statistical work, convenient meeting rooms, and facilities and supplies for regular bulletins or other duplicated materials.
7. The program is varied as much as possible and includes research, follow-up

studies, case studies, case conferences, book bulletins, guest lecturers, visitation of various campus offices, student presentations of their points of view, informal discussions with students, visits to student activities, mixer parties between faculty and students, and study-skills conferences with actual practice by the faculty of the techniques suggested. Not all of the faculty or counselors pursue all of these offerings of the in-service training program, nor are all of these activities operated concurrently.

8. Participation is encouraged in the expression of divergent points of view concerning the present practices in student personnel work at the college. Different practices are demonstrated. Experimentation is undertaken and watched by all. These divergent viewpoints and practices are shared with and discussed by all, and wherever possible are evaluated.
9. The program is planned to become long-term, thereby providing for the continuous professional growth of the faculty and personnel staff. It is possible for a faculty member to re-enter the program at any time he feels a need or can make a contribution.

An in-service program based on these principles does not just happen. The chief personnel officer leads. A committee advises and assists him. He endeavors to let everyone make a contribution to the program. He makes certain that the program begins with the needs of the participants, that it gives them an opportunity to integrate it with their regular work, and that it permits them to share and evaluate their points of view.

Methods and Techniques for In-service Study

Methods used in an in-service training program which are reported to have much merit include the use of a manual on personnel services to be distributed to all the faculty as well as frequent bulletins. Conferences on personnel work may be held on the campus, with all faculty members invited to attend whatever sessions they can. The conferences might be planned primarily for the personnel staffs of several nearby colleges but will prove of interest and value to faculty advisers and others. Regular meetings of personnel staff are held on many teacher-education campuses for continuous training purposes. To these meetings faculty members may be invited. Other colleges plan faculty meetings for discussion of personnel work. Then, too, regular in-service training meetings are often planned for faculty advisers and other interested faculty members.

Faculty meetings to study personnel work are reported to be very successful on several campuses. There seem to be several principles for successful faculty meetings. The meetings should consider personnel problems which actually exist on the campus and which concern the faculty's professional needs. Significant developments in professional personnel work should be topics of concern. The meetings must be well planned with the faculty or a committee of the faculty participating in the planning. Topics and times of the meeting should be announced early that all may have a chance to attend and to prepare to participate in discussion.

Programs at these meetings sometimes are in the form of reviews of pertinent articles in magazines or journals or of new books in the field of personnel work. Such reviews are generally followed by discussion of the views presented and sometimes recommendations for further study of the topic as it applies to the college. Another form of program is a lecture by a visiting authority dealing with some theory or practice which has been newly formulated or explored. In such programs attention should be given to the principle that personnel work is for the *education* of the student as well as for his *service*.

Dramatization of personnel work techniques, playback of recordings of actual counseling interviews, group diagnosis from duplicated test scores and other data, playback of actual case conferences, group study of the handling of various types of clinical cases, and the analysis and evaluation of personnel services provide wide variety to the in-service training, yet permit some continuity to the whole program. Topics which may be dealt with in the analysis and evaluation of personnel services include among others: personnel policies, selection of tests, the meaning of test scores, the use of test results, the results of personal history questionnaires, the value of data on admission blanks, admission policies and their effect on instructional practices, selection processes before and after admission, the retention of worthy students, placement problems, customs and regulations of the college, discipline and conduct, orientation to college and to class, use for instructional purposes of data in records, purposes of pre-registration, registration policies, and effective conference techniques.

Another source of much interest to groups of faculty members within the whole training program is activity in research. One group may wish to investigate and report on the drop-out rate in the college and the causes of drop out. Another may wish to look into the pattern of problems checked on problem check lists by students in different major fields. One group of faculty members may be interested in doing a little research in the follow-up of graduates, perhaps of a certain major. Others may be interested in the relationship of some activity or living group to academic or social achievement. Investigation may be made by some of the cultural values of group dining rather than cafeteria service. Some studies may be undertaken by individuals who wish to seek an answer to a specific question requiring research. Also very important is the need for the faculty and staff to learn of significant research done elsewhere in such an important area as selection. As groups or individuals make known their findings, the faculty are likely to discover new interests and problems for research, and long-term goals may be set for some major research project to be sponsored by the personnel or other departments.

Evaluation of the In-service Training Program

What about the evaluation of the in-service training program in personnel work? Some yardsticks for measuring progress might be the number of faculty members who seek to be student group sponsors, changes in the friendliness of the campus, use of personnel office records by instructors and counselors, and tendency of faculty to take tests themselves or to use student rating devices to measure their own effectiveness as instructors or counselors. There may be changes in social relationships with students, an increase in number of referrals, and changes in types of referrals. Attendance at "bull sessions" may increase. More faculty and counselors may visit students in hospital or infirmary. More may provide interesting facts about student personnel work for bulletins. Counselors may visit faculty offices about students more frequently either on their own volition or at request of the instructor. Reports from various colleges of teacher education indicate that the above do occur when well-planned programs of in-service training in personnel work are provided for faculty and counselors.

Student Personnel Work in Future Teacher Education

It has been pointed out in this chapter that student personnel work is a part of the educational program making some contributions to the general, special, and professional phases of the curriculum. It has not been looked upon as the prerogative of either the teacher or the specialist, but it is found to be carried on by either and both. Its co-ordination is essential but the manner of its organization is a function of the philosophy of the college.

That personnel work has grown and has been carried on successfully can hardly be denied. That it may change in emphasis and in organization is possible. Certainly personnel workers need to study the growing body of research in the personnel field. In teacher education there is the work of Walter W. Cook and his associates in the field of teacher attitudes. David S. Ryan has done much research in teacher competencies, and Arvil S. Barr has sought widely for factors contributing to teaching success. Harold E. Mitzel and William Rabinowitz have sought for means of measuring criteria of teaching effectiveness. That much research is still needed is not to be denied. In a recent publication of the AACTE[4] no less than ninety-six topics for research in student personnel work are proposed. As teacher education moves toward the program envisioned in this book, student personnel workers can advance the program of personnel work through the results of sound research.

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[4] *Needed Research in Teacher Education,* AACTE Study Series, No. 2. Oneonta, New York: The Association, 1954.

10

THE ROLE OF ADMINISTRATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION [*]

In the United States teacher education is legally a function of the individual states. The pattern of institutional organization and administration through which teacher education takes place varies greatly not only throughout the country but even within a state. This fact is made clear in the reports of intervisitation committees and the self-appraisal forms completed by faculty members during the three-year intervisitation program of member institutions conducted by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. For example, elementary and secondary teachers are prepared in such diverse types of institutions as teachers colleges, universities (state, municipal, and private), liberal arts colleges (private and denominational), land-grant and regional state colleges, and certain special institutions devoted to the preparation of teachers in music, art, or physical education.

To comprehend the role of administration in teacher education thus requires an understanding that, although many different organizational and administrative patterns for the teacher-education program are represented in these several types of institutions, some essentials in points of view of administration are common to all regardless of the type of institution.

Major Groups Involved in Administration

The administration of educational institutions consists of two principal activities: (1) policy making, concerned primarily with educational purposes and programs; and (2) execution, concerned primarily with putting policy, purposes, and programs into operation and maintaining them at a high level. These two phases are not always mutually exclusive, often being by their nature closely related. The following characteristics of administration of good teacher-education institutions will generally be noted: (1) Educational policy making is considered to be a function of the faculty. This viewpoint is based upon the tenets that those who are participating in the school's educational program should have a voice in determining what the program should be and that the combined thinking of many well-trained people will be better than the thought of any one person. (2) Executive planning and action are employed to put the policies thus determined into operation. It is held that these will be most effective when the basic responsibility for them is lodged in a single person, usually the president in a college for teacher education or a dean in a multi-purpose institution. These statements greatly oversimplify the somewhat complex operation of teacher-education administration. However, if the two principal phases are kept in mind, the functioning of such administration will be clarified.

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[*] The first draft of this chapter was prepared by the late President Roben J. Maaske, Oregon College of Education, Monmouth, Oregon. The present text of the chapter, however, is a composite of the work of two other persons. Pages 359 to 369 and 378 to 381 were written by Dr. Wendell W. Wright, Dean, School of Education, and Vice President, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana. Pages 369 to 378 were written by Dean Donald P. Cottrell, College of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Unlike the other chapters, this one, in its present form, could not, for lack of time, be seen for an exchange of views by the other writers of the book.

All institutions, whether private or public, are controlled by governing boards to which the chief executive officer is directly responsible. These boards are by rules and laws held responsible by their public for the over-all operation of the institution. This means that only within the sphere of the charter of the institution or the board's approval and delegation of authority can any faculty or administrative staff operate freely in educational policy making and in execution. However, institutions desire and respond quickly to the leadership of faculty and administrative staff. The long experience of many governing boards attests to this fact. Traditionally, either through charter or long practice, many areas of an educational institution are considered to be within the sphere of faculty and administrative control. Such matters as course content, teaching procedures, curriculum, student personnel, internal operation, and administrative organization are really determined in most schools by the faculty and administrative staff. There may be notable exceptions, but as a general rule the faculty and administrative staff have all the freedom that their leadership deserves and are not materially hampered by governing boards.

It must always be recognized that a teacher-education institution has as its prime purpose the education of its students. A part of that education is the growth of the student to participate to the level of his maturity in the affairs of the institution. The long-time measure of any teacher-education institution is the life performance of its alumni. A part of their life performance will be their participation in policy making both in the schools in which they will teach and in the communities in which they will be citizens. Therefore, the opportunity for students to participate to the level of their maturity in the policy making of the institution becomes a necessary part of their training, and in addition this opportunity provided students will greatly enrich the thinking in the institution of which they are a part. The administrator of a teacher-education institution must then recognize at least four major groups with whom he has opportunity for leadership: (1) faculty, (2) board of trustees, (3) executive staff, and (4) students.

Faculty Responsibility

The leadership with faculty is based first of all upon the executive's faith in the faculty's potentiality to carry out their functions of policy. Without this faith leadership cannot succeed. The executive must create an environment for freedom of thought and expression. In every way possible talents should be utilized and recognized and their utilization facilitated. This means there must be organization of the faculty for effective work. The particular kind of organization is somewhat immaterial if it allows for varied points of view, free interchange of thoughts, and clarity of purpose and function. For example, if the purposes are such that they generally tend to cut across and include many departments, the usual departmental organization should be abandoned for some broader organization that includes faculty from many departments. In any such organization there must also be provision for communication between committees. If there is in the organization a policy committee on curriculum, for example, and another on student personnel, these two committees cannot operate in isolation but must interchange thinking. The organization of the faculty for policy-making purposes must include a method of reporting to all faculty and of recommending policy to obtain appropriate action.

To do the continuous work of studying the policy and programs of an institution takes much faculty time and effort. This must be recognized in the school's structure of operation in terms of faculty assignment of total time and effort and in its full support of their endeavors. If in making a study a committee needs to collect significant data with reference to its thinking, the support of that research should become an important claim on the budget of the institution. The decision to satisfy this claim is objective evidence of the school's desire to obtain the best policy action.

The provision for adequate policy making is not in itself enough. The faculty must in the process accept responsibilities that in an autocratic administration would not be theirs. Not all of these responsibilities can be delineated. First of all, the faculty must believe in the process of group thinking and must have a desire to give much time and effort to the over-all problems of the institution even though in many cases they are not of immediate interest to an individual faculty member's own teaching specialty. The faculty must be willing to discuss and understand problems, to reduce variances, to alleviate tensions, to control feelings of prestige, and to make adjustments whenever and wherever such action is feasible for the furtherance of the educational purposes of the institution. There are faculty members who envisage that the function of administration is to relieve them of policy decisions, leaving them free to teach, to read, to do research, and to participate in other scholarly activities. For some individual members of a faculty this is a sound argument and should be recognized as a possible best method of utilization of their time and energies. However, with this privilege should go the responsibility to accept the policies made by those who do participate in policy making. Administration should recognize and positively capitalize upon individual differences in faculty personnel. Because of the general pattern of prestige in a faculty group, opinions of some members will count and those of others will not. Prestige relationships may at times prevent free discussion in a faculty group. Occasionally personalities, friendship circles, and social cliques within a faculty exert an unusual influence. The faculty needs to study these prestige patterns and to take them into account in considering the contributions and proposals made and points of view expressed.

The "group climate" existing in a faculty engaged in teacher education is also a factor to consider. Some faculties are in the habit of working closely and co-operatively together. Other faculties have had less experience. Some will willingly spend the time necessary for involvement in actual policy formation, while others are less willing. Executive leadership can greatly aid in achieving a group professional morale through processes which will assure satisfying group action in policy formation.

It is never possible to separate policy making and executive action, because they are both parts of administration. The chief executive officer must obviously make certain types of executive decisions from day to day and from year to year to carry out the broad policies arrived at by the faculty. He, of course, should have a consciousness of the general faculty group feeling concerning the wisdom of the individual decisions. There are some types of administrative decision making predicated on extensive and long-term knowledge and experience and based on tradition, public-relations policy, and data in which faculty committees might not be primarily interested. On the other hand, there is much decision making affecting academic problems, curriculum practices, student personnel, instructional resources, and a variety of other matters of broad policy concern. The faculty should participate extensively in this work by means of the machinery and processes set up to enable it to arrive at forward-looking policies.

The problems involved in the operational feasibility of policies arrived at by the faculty make it imperative that policy making and executive action find a common ground of understanding. This may be done in the working plan or organization of the faculty. This part of the total organization of the faculty and the executive staff must not be neglected. Operational feasibility will in most cases be considered by the policy-making group while the way in which a policy can be carried out to achieve its purpose will be the aim of the executive officer.

The success of administration both in policy making and in execution depends largely upon the willingness of all involved to share the duties and responsibilities as well as the privileges and opportunities that this type of administration affords. There must also be a constant appreciation of the fact that a perfect democracy in action is perhaps an impossible goal but that the striving for harmonious teamwork in policy formation and implementation inevitably brings its rich rewards.

Student Participation

The involvement of students in the policy making and the executive operation of an institution is an essential phase of a teacher-education program. The problems involved in this phase of administration are made difficult because of the facts that youth lack full maturity to deal with basic matters, that students are with the school only a short time, and that faculties and executive staffs are often not thoroughly convinced that the results are worth the time, energy, and patience necessary to involve the students in participation. All members of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education have some student participation; some have achieved more complete integration than others. A great many institutions today have students who are largely responsible for policies in matters that are primarily student affairs. These institutions may involve many or all students in student government and other activities, sometimes called extracurricular or college living activities. This is a move toward fuller involvement of the student in policy making. The real test is found, however, in the extent to which students are considered as participants in policy formation in those matters generally accepted as academic affairs. If the organization of the faculty for policy making does not include some students as participating members or does not provide for student participation in other ways in the thinking of the school, then full acceptance of students in policy making has not been achieved. This is true in executive operation to somewhat the same degree if such operation is carried out through committee action in which judgment is expected. For anyone to propose that a teacher-education institution should be run by the students is too ridiculous to discuss. That students are involved as participants in administration, as here discussed, to the degree their maturity permits, is the mark of an institution that believes in a wealth of potentially meaningful experiences as basic to good teacher education.

The pattern of organization of student participation in administration may take one of many forms. Much will depend upon the general organization of the institution and upon the leadership of those engaged in the student personnel work. However, there are a few reasonable principles by which to work.

1. The faculty and executive staff must believe it is educationally worth while to use the time, energy, and patience necessary to involve students in participation in administration.
2. Student participation is primarily a learning process, but the learner has much to contribute to the total situation.
3. The degree of participation and contribution of the student will vary from one phase of the institution's activities to another. There are few, if any, phases of policy making from which students should be excluded.
4. Students should not be asked to make decisions beyond the level of their expected maturity.
5. Administration must expect to provide guidance and counseling for the help and protection of those who have decisions to make.
6. Due to the short period of time of a student's service in policy

making, special attention should be given to planning for continuity of student participation.

Work of the Executive Staff

The personnel of the executive staff, more often called the administrative staff, headed by the single executive or administrator, must be determined by the type of institution. Institutions in which teacher education is conducted vary greatly, and therefore no particular pattern of organization can be suggested. However, there are several areas of operation that must be involved, whether carried on by a staff member or not: business management, student personnel, faculty welfare, public and professional relations, teaching materials and equipment, and evaluation.

There is a difference in point of view as to the amount of executive work that should be undertaken by teaching faculty members and by staff engaged specifically for executive work. Much can be said on both sides of the question. However, the determining factor should be the effectiveness and efficiency of the pattern of organization for carrying out the basic policy. An easy and expensive trap to fall into is the decision, made with some false sense of democracy, that executive functions can be carried out by the teaching faculty without additional cost. Many institutions, for example, have a committee on admission to the undergraduate program of teacher education—a committee that sets up and advises on admissions policy and the rules to be followed. However, if the whole committee acts as an admissions executive staff, the operation may become very expensive and be no more democratic than having a designated individual carry on the work. Democracy of school administration is not necessarily furthered by the fact that an executive act is carried out by a committee. It is furthered by the fact that the faculty makes the policy to be followed. The chief executive must determine how a policy can be carried out most effectively and efficiently.

The line and staff organization of the executive phase of administration has stood the test of time as probably the best workable plan. This type of organization makes two assumptions of great value: (1) the plan places and delegates responsibility for executive action; (2) it implies a constant study of an evaluative type. The executive phase of administration with the line type of delegated responsibility is almost universally used in one form or another in teacher-education institutions. The staff phase, of an evaluative nature, is seldom found, yet it represents an idea that ought to be more commonly used.

One great value in a specialized and trained executive staff is found in the fact that each member in his executive operation not only will become skilled in his work but also will be valuable to policy-making groups, of which he should be a part, in their continuous study of the policies controlling his executive operations. No better example could be given than in the field of student personnel. For the past fifteen years there has been great development in that area, both in breadth and in depth. These specialists have much to offer to any faculty policy committee. There is always the danger here as in any field that the specialist will, as an executive officer, make policy rather than be a valuable member of a policy group to develop the controlling policies. Any executive staff member must be both the servant and the master: the servant of the policies that control his work and the master of ideas challenging to those who make the policies.

Contribution of the Governing Board

Perhaps the great phenomenon of American higher education is the devoted service of thousands of men and women who are members of governing boards. This is in a true sense the operation of a public trust whether in private, church-related, or public higher education institutions. Each governing board has some legal responsibilities stated by law or charter, but each has and feels its responsibilities to its public, no matter whether private, or church, or state controlled, far beyond any that are officially or legally stated.

The reasons for the phenomenal college attendance of American youth are no doubt many. The implied faith of the people in higher education may be directly related to a faith in college governing boards. In this country we have a kind of basic faith in those things that grow out of the people. Colleges, whether private or public, have grown out of the desire for, and trust of the people in, institutions governed by themselves. At times there may be publicly expressed negative criticism of a college, either private or public, which is in reality an expressed concern of the people about "their" institution. Governing boards are generally devoted to the institutions they serve and cognizant of the trust their own people have reposed in them.

This desire of people for an institution controlled by themselves and their trust in such an institution may, more than any other factor, account for so few governing boards having as members employed personnel of the college.

By law and charter, governing boards are usually alone empowered to control and to legislate the operational policies of their institutions. Therefore, all policy formation and administrative control become their responsibility. They cannot shed this responsibility but they can share it. Chancellor Emeritus Samuel P. Capen of the University of Buffalo writes:

> A steady process of democratization has been going forward in all our social institutions. No matter what their original and legal form, all social institutions have responded in some degree to the demand for a wider participation by interested individuals and groups in the determination of their operating policies. The college offers no exception to this tendency. In law and in organic structure the college is still an autocracy. But very few colleges are now in fact autocratically ruled. And the occasional contemporary instances of autocratic behavior on the part of trustees and presidents—behavior, be it noted, always within the legal definition of their powers—are profoundly shocking to our sensibilities.[1]

Throughout the long years of work of governing boards, there has been built up a recognition of the distinctly valuable contribution that can be made both in process and in product by wide participation of faculty, executive staff, and in many cases students, in formation of policies and practices which the board adopts. These policies and practices have become in some ways a kind of constitution of the institution. In many instances they have become a published handbook of policy. No better example could be given than an institution's statement of tenure policy. In a great many institutions this official statement will be closely related to that proposed by the faculty and executive staff. The governing board will respond to good leadership on the part of the staff by sharing its responsibility through direct delegation in many areas, and by securing wider participation of staff in determination of policies in ever-increasing areas. The governing board, however, can never abdicate its ultimate responsibility.

The Chief Executive

If you know a person who has educational vision coupled with social consciousness and business acumen; if he has a firm faith in human beings, depth of personal understanding and love of youth; if he has keen insight into the professional field of teacher education, understanding of the principles of group dynamics, and unique ability to interpret higher education to all people; if he is a scholar in his own right and has quick perception of the importance of all disciplines; if he is humble, generous in humor, and without fear; if he most often says "we" and less often "I"; if he can be in proper character both as a servant and a master; and if he has the patience of Job and the strength of Samson, he would seem to have the minimum qualifications expected of a modern-day chief executive in a good teacher-education institution.

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[1] Capen, Samuel P., *The Management of Universities*, ed. by Oscar A. Silverman for the Council of the University of Buffalo, Buffalo: Foster and Stewart, 1953, p. 79.

Such are the qualities desired of the chief executive, an educational leader, because he speaks and acts for higher education in general and teacher education in particular. It is not the fact that his name is Smith, Jones, or Brown but the fact that he is President Brown representing higher education that is significant.

The demands upon any administrator, as many will bear witness, have increased geometrically with the great growth in higher education enrollments and correlated intricacies of the professional development of teacher education. To maintain his most important function, that of over-all planning and co-ordinating, he must discipline himself to that purpose above others. In a present-day executive position he can do this only by being willing to delegate responsibility and not allowing himself to become the clerk of the works instead of the architect.

There are features of the operational pattern of an institution that must rank high in the work of the chief executive. The first of these is the provision for complete information and the best thinking of his staff concerning all phases of the work of the institution which he presents to the governing board. While governing boards may naturally have greater interest in matters concerning finances, budgets, buildings, and public relations, they may be interested in the more specifically educational aspects only if the chief executive presents such data.

Another feature is that of constantly building and maintaining the best staff possible through selection, proper working conditions, adequate salary, tenure, and welfare provisions—all in terms of the purposes and programs of the institution. The staff is the heart of any institution. To fail in this phase spells mediocrity. To have an excellent staff is still not enough. The chief executive must free staff members in every possible way for professional work and creative endeavor. This involves providing for them every possible aid in the achievement of their assigned work. Library, laboratory, stenographic help, teaching materials, and many other such aids should be their ready tools. Freedom of thought, discussion, and participation without fear should be their expected heritage. Stimulation—positive encouragement, backing, and challenge—should be their climate.

A third feature of the chief executive's responsibility is to recognize that the purpose of an institution is not to make money, nor to save money, but to spend what it has wisely. This means that, because of the great demands and pressures for needed expenditures, there must be thrift in management and careful planning in spending, so that each dollar will buy the most possible for the education of youth in the institution. Business management is a highly important function in the administration of an institution and, unfortunately, is the least understood by the faculty. This great dearth of understanding and appreciation should be remedied through the leadership of the chief executive.

Human Relations Problems in Educational Administration

Educational administrators everywhere are searching for ways and means of coping with increasingly complex responsibilities. Problems of population increase and rising costs, with the educational handicaps accumulated during war years, make the work of the administrator more arduous but also offer new opportunities for significant achievement. At the same time, new tensions have surrounded schools and colleges and for some administrators there is the problem of sheer survival amidst the threatening effects of pressures from individuals and groups bent upon having their way in education. It is perhaps fortunate that a democratic people should make so many and so complex demands upon educational leadership, for this is a sign of the social vitality of the educational enterprise. Administrators clearly need and want help, however, in dealing with the challenge inherent in the current educational situation.

A fact more and more being recognized is that the administrator's success is usually not a thing that he alone creates out of hand and by his own individual powers, nor is his failure necessarily the result alone of some special defect in him or in his equipment for the task. The individual administrator who is well prepared for his work will be successful if he is in the proper place but even such a well-prepared person may fail under different and unfavorable circumstances. This is not to say that an administrative leader is helpless to create a favorable situation for his work. On the contrary, one of the great fields of administrative talent and skill is that of molding the development of the human situation in which education is being conducted and building the devices and terms of human interaction that will result in significant educational accomplishment. The inadequately prepared, untalented, or irresponsible administrator will of course fail, unless saved by sheer accident, whatever the conditions of his assignment.

The field of educational administration is thus one for the student of human relations. It is a field whose opportunities and responsibilities have to do with the facilitation of interpersonal and group relations and activities of educational importance. Its essential problems may largely be defined in terms of such relations and activities. Its rewards come to those who are successful in managing dynamic human forces and in shaping and guiding co-operative human endeavor.

Authority and Responsibility

One of the perennial problems of educational administration is to bring about an appropriate conformity of authority and responsibility in the assignment of each administrative officer. To overbalance responsibility with authority may breed officiousness; to err in the reverse direction may yield ineffectiveness and frustration on the part of the officer and confusion among those whom he serves.

Usually the adaptation of authority to responsibility is a matter of definition of the nature of the authority and responsibility implied. It may be quite impossible, for example, to hold a departmental chairman in a teacher-education institution responsible for a fully effective instructional program in his area, even if he is promised wide latitude for his authority, unless it is understood that his responsibility is one of leadership to that end, with the actual determination of course content, teaching methods, and student evaluative procedures left to individual faculty members and to the staff group as a whole. It is evident that the definition of the task of administration in such a situation hinges upon what an administrative officer may properly be expected to accomplish by way of persuasion of his colleagues, augmenting their resources for effective professional work, and facilitating the deliberative processes that lead their group to accurate evaluation of their own work and recognition of their own need for change. It simply cannot be within the administrator's power to produce, out of hand, good teaching by the staff. Thus not only must authority and responsibility be adjusted to each other in the work of an effective administrative officer, but both must be fitted appropriately to the expectations set for and by faculty members, students, and others who have a real share in reaching the decisions that actually control the program.

Both authority and responsibility for decision making are, in fact, distributed among various parties in any democratic community. It is not only unrealistic but wrong in principle to disregard that sharing when the administrative task is defined and an individual assignment made. Respect for the essential character of such a community dictates that the administrator, particularly the educational administrator, be conceived basically as a member of that community, whose work for the community has certain special characteristics, but whose authority derives from, and functions in relation to, a broad base of co-operating individuals and agencies, rather than merely in relation to his next superior officer in the administrative line. This is no counsel of insubordination for administrators; it is only to say that the administrative task and process in an educational institution, especially in one devoted to teacher education, should be a good demonstration of the operation of the principles of democratic education.

Administrative and Staff Leadership

If educational administration is to be conceived as a means of facilitating individual growth in a democratic community setting, one of the basic tests of the efficiency of the administrator is his ability to discover and release leadership on the part of others. That administrator is best whose staff colleagues over a period of time feel most at ease in asserting their powers of professional leadership and who feel most keenly challenged to do so. Not only is such an administrator himself not threatened in his security by originality and leadership on the part of others but, indeed, he derives his greatest fulfillment of professional purpose when recognition comes to his colleagues for important professional contributions.

Leadership in producing leadership may seem to suggest a paradox. The administrative leader who sets such a goal for himself must be a combination of the relaxed, confident, and assured personality with the alert, restless, eager, and ever exacting professional worker. How can these two seemingly contrasting sets of personal attributes be found in the same individual and survive the presumed corrosive effects of one upon the other? Probably no ready answer can be found, except to say that a certain type of personality organization is required, with the corollary pattern of human goals and satisfactions. Very likely, the development of such an administrative personality is more within the power of a group of his colleagues than it is within the reach and grasp of any aspiring individual. Certainly the expectations put forward by a faculty for its administrators have much to do with the behavior of those administrators. It would seem that orderly and sympathetic study of the problem of how to create a larger share of democratic behavior in educational administrators would be a worthy project for faculty groups.

The opportunity to use in teacher-education administration the best that is known of the principles of teaching, however, is available to every individual engaged in that type of administrative work. It is true that, for some strange reason, the appraisal of administration by means of a criterion of good teaching seems frequently to be a novel idea. Too often the situation seems set for the issuance of orders, rather than for teaching by the administrator. When such is the case, the administrator hears what may really be only phantoms barking at his heels and rushes madly about to the supposed safety of decisiveness and authoritative command. As a consequence the administrator on the run frequently wields about as much genuine and long-term influence over the quality and productiveness of his staff organization as does the teacher on the run from an undisciplined group of students. The whole performance is an unruly contest, not a normal process of education.

To apply to administration the yardstick of good teaching suggests firm and orderly but mutually respectful and permissive association of staff members, whatever their assigned responsibilities, with a view to the clear establishment of common goals and methods of operation. It suggests recognition of the proper function of the administrator by other staff members, just as students must recognize the teacher's role in the work of their group. It suggests that exploitive behavior on the part of any member of the group, including an administrative member, will tend to poison the group. It suggests that rewards must be given, not on the basis of any kind of favoritism, but for meritorious achievement. It suggests that there is scarcely any limit upon the possibility for productive achievement, when the human relationships throughout the group are those of mutuality and integrity.

The Education of Administrators for Teacher Education

Administration in teacher education doubtless requires for its best performance the same high level of basic intelligence and health that is needed in other leadership fields and professional occupations. Within certain limits, the evidence indicates that individuals possessed of such outstanding basic human abilities may learn to succeed in any one of a number of such occupations. Learning to do the work of administering teacher education, however, is essential and possible, since there is no more evidence that people are merely born to that calling than there is that they are merely born to teaching or to any other professional calling.

How do people learn to administer teacher education? Considering the complexity and importance of the work, the fact is that they learn what they know in much too haphazard a fashion. For the most part they "learn by doing" in the literal and mechanical sense. There is no fully adequate course of formal study for the work, although graduate programs have been offered by universities with creditable success for a good many years. How could persons be selected and learn better to do this work? There seems to be no entirely satisfactory answer to this question, but there is no reason to believe that there must be any eternal mystery about it. It would seem to be possible to discover by experimentation what is needed and to educate administrators for teacher education with as great a promise of effectiveness as attends the education of teachers.

Currently the education of administrators for schools and school systems is advancing through nationwide co-operative efforts with special foundation support. Selection and professional preparation prior to employment, as well as the development of new horizons of competency during employment, are responding to co-operative investigation and there is every reason to believe that school administration in the years ahead will be better conducted than in the past. Both pre-service and in-service education for the administrators of teacher education could similarly be developed to advantage. The biennial School for Executives of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is a significant effort along this line.

Administrative Education for Faculty and Students

If what has been said in previous paragraphs of this chapter with reference to the reciprocal relation of the status leader and the group members has merit as a commentary upon the theory of educational administration, faculty and students need administrative education as a means of improving administration. Presumably this education should center in the democratic process of decision making, for this is the point at which the motives and intentions of both status authorities and the "rank and file" are frequently misunderstood, those of the one by the other. This is the point where conflict of interest shows itself. The time to begin such education is whenever the social studies are pursued, and it should be indefinitely continued in the laboratory of the day to day life of the teacher-education institution. Such education should have wide social significance, for it relates to community life in all of its reaches, as the public issues of "big government," "big industry," "big labor," and many others so dramatically attest.

Many specific studies may well supplement the main core of administrative education in a teacher-education institution. The structure of legal authorities related to the operation of the educational program is largely unknown to students and teachers. The source of financial support for education and the requirements of responsible administration of funds remain a sphere of perennial vagueness and unconcern for many who seek or hold professional positions in education. The factors which enter into the determination of the standard of living for educational workers, as compared with other occupational groups, while of vital ultimate concern to students and teachers, are actually only superficially understood in many cases. Systematic study of these and similar fields related to the management of the teacher-education institution would certainly contribute to a more ready and intelligent meeting of minds than often is attained when policy questions are under consideration.

Building Supportive Public Attitudes and Sanctions

The problem of improving the administration of teacher education may well be seen as a special form of the problem of administration in government. It is also a special form of the problem of college and university administration, because of the differences of purpose and content between teacher education and higher education in general or between teacher education and other distinctive units of higher education. To recognize its various special conditions, however, should not obscure the fundamental and common elements of administrative work in all fields, and particularly in all educational fields.

Perhaps the heart of the problem of securing good administration lies in the establishment of an appropriate connection between the acts of the administrator and the purposes and attitudes of the people who are affected by those acts. When the administrator does what the people want him to do, they tend to regard him as a good administrator; when his acts are contrary to their wishes, or perhaps only not understood to be in conformity with their wishes, he is likely to be judged adversely by them. The matter is not so simple as it may seem, however. How can the people know what they want? How can the administrator tell what the people want? Where does he stand when, as frequently happens, they know and he knows that they are divided as to what they want? Under what conditions should the administrator act contrarily to what he believes most of the people want? How often and how long is it likely that he can do so and still hold the confidence and willing support of the total group? These questions are illustrative of many whose answers have a good deal to do with the security of the administrator and perhaps at least something to do with his wisdom. There is no reason to believe that the key to acquiring better administration must lie in creating a relationship between the administrator and his group which fosters insecurity for him, since the case for insecurity as the mother of wisdom has scarcely been made in any other field of human activity. The problem is one of fostering alertness and professional originality and drive, as well as responsibility in the administrator. In general, it seems that these qualities in educators develop most frequently and best in an atmosphere of appreciation and mutual sharing of interests and activities among all who are engaged in the common task. Thus the building of supportive attitudes toward the administrator in the group which he serves is one of his necessary objectives and should also be a primary concern of the group itself.

Where Is "the Public" Whom the Administrator Serves?

Sometimes this question seems more neatly answerable than at other times, but it is seldom a truly simple one. The concept of "the public" refers to a complex of overlapping groups which exist singly and together because they hold certain common interests. The definition of such an interest may be sharp or it may be tenuous and vague. The purchasers of railroad ties are relatively few, with rather precise purposes and requirements, and the manager of the saw mill who sells those timbers can deal rather clearly and directly with that part, at least, of his "public." The purchasers of railroad transportation, however, potentially constitute virtually the entire population, and the railroad manager no doubt has to go on a trial and error basis a good deal of the time in deciding what desires for his service exist.

The administrator of teacher education, as noted previously in this chapter, needs to recognize at the outset that multiple groups concern themselves with his activities. One of the vital groups of his "public" is that of his immediate colleagues on the campus. He must relate himself to them and their concerns. Another group with which he must deal professionally is the student body. The alumni of his institution, the teaching population of the service area of his institution, the educational profession at large, the parents and children of the schools in which graduates of his institution serve, or may serve, and even the general citizenry of the community who count the fortunes of public education to be important to them, all have a place in the administrator's line of vision from time to time. He must find their concerns and take them into account as he functions in his office. Taken together, such groups constitute his "public" and his success may depend upon any one of them, as well as upon some appropriate satisfaction of the needs of all of them.

The public reference of the teacher-education administrator may seem to be so broad and so fraught with contingency as to make intelligent administrative action impossible. This would necessarily be true, were it not that a democratic community acts upon principle. Teacher-education administration based upon the satisfaction of all of the particular concerns of the relevant public groups would be impossible, but such administration in terms of the recognized principles of democratic group association and the professional justification of the educational procedures involved becomes both possible and intellectually rewarding for those who make themselves masters of the principles involved. It is precisely at this point that teacher education for a free society based upon principle, rather than upon mere personal administration, finds its true significance. The search for sound principles of teacher-education administration in a free society is the highest purpose of the administrator in the college for teacher education in such a society.

The Interplay of Interests in the Formation of Administrative Policy

The policy of a public agency such as a college for teacher education embodies the resolution in some fashion of various interests in a unified line of action. Democratic policy, expressed in terms of action based upon principle, reduces to a minimum the conflicts of interest so embodied. The authoritarian approach to policy formation suppresses such conflicts of interest as may be present, but leaves them ready to assert themselves in an overthrow of the policy as soon as relaxed authority may permit. Where the democratic process of cultivation of the free expression of interests at the level of the discovery of sound principle is followed, relatively stable policy may be formed; where such a process is not followed, the resulting policy has only the stability of the authority which promulgates it. The infallibly superior stability of democratically derived policy is hard to demonstrate, however, considering the disconcerting longevity of some authoritarian administrative and controlling agencies, and in any case is not its greatest virtue. The prime strength of such policy lies in its effect upon the life and growth of the institution to which it applies. This is the strength of the sanction of those who have participated in making the policy and who are therefore prepared voluntarily to observe it.

Probably no greater single opportunity could be found to improve the quality of administration of teacher education than to provide more effectively than in the past for the expression and consideration of the many and often apparently conflicting interests that have a bearing upon basic administrative policy in the institution for teacher education. Many illustrations of such interests could be found, but perhaps one will presently suffice. Certain groups of parents and citizens have what are sometimes regarded as antagonistic views on the teaching of reading in the elementary school. They frequently find no official welcome for the expression of these views and content themselves with belaboring the teacher for teaching in what they believe to be the wrong way. The teacher may have too few scientific resources to judge this conflict of view authoritatively, and indeed the school system of which he is a member may not be able to keep fully conversant with the range of scientific evidence on the point. Should the teacher have been equipped with different methodological procedures to be applied in his work? This is essentially a question of curriculum policy for the teacher-education institution and its adopted policy actually governs the policy of the schools and the teachers. The matter should be explored on the level of principle in that institution and all relevant views sought and evaluated. When a policy is adopted on the basis of such full consideration of principles involved, there is little room for hasty and ill considered changes to be wrought by special pleaders or selfish pressure groups.

The record of teacher-education institutions, broadly speaking, is good, in respect to the democratic consideration of large popular interests when policy is formed. As noted previously in this chapter, the lay board of trustees has proved a fortunate instrument for this purpose. Sufficient instances arise, however, to indicate that the process of deliberate cultivation of the expression of dissenting views from public sources in the proper setting for their evaluation and use in policy deliberation is one which frightens some administrators and controlling boards. When such views fail of expression at the official points where they should count, they remain as a latent threat to the security and efficiency of the institution and all of its members. Furthermore, failing to secure official recognition of their views, the proponents are sometimes tempted to use the methods of propaganda, possibly hiding behind anonymity, in an effort to force recognition by threat of unorganized public opinion. When the resort is to such pressure methods, the individual and even the institution may be victimized for following what they may regard as the best professional course, by their lights, but one which is against the adverse currents of stormy popular sentiment.

The Challenge to Administration

The challenges to administration are widespread. It is well to remember that the teacher-education program in either a single-purpose or a multi-purpose institution will be largely concerned with the development of youth to become teachers in the elementary and secondary schools. This is their central objective, but many special emphases may be highly important for some institutions. The graduate program leading to the Doctor's degree, a foreign student program, or a highly specialized program of training of teachers of crippled children may be important to a particular institution. Such specialized contribution to teacher education should be encouraged where interest, staff, financial backing, and special conditions favor such special development. However, the basic program should not be sacrificed.

If an institution wishes to evaluate its basic progress it should think in most cases of its major endeavor, which is likely to be its undergraduate teacher-education program for elementary and secondary teachers. These programs have been and will continue to be constantly reinterpreted to cope with the ever-changing society in which we live. It is difficult to make changes in a good on-going program. When policy and programs are developed by the staff, change generally becomes more difficult than in a highly autocratic situation. In fact, one of the very real dangers of control of policy by staff is that staff members are likely to become very conservative and resistant to change.

Variation is the only hope of growth in any institution. Any over-all change is always a big task, both mentally and emotionally, for everyone concerned. It is generally better to *grow* into rather than *go* into any new operation. To make change gradually is less disturbing to the organism of the institution. This can be done by studying experimentally any new type of program. Since approval can usually be found for experimental operation, the road to growth through encouragement of experimentation, if that term is used broadly, is the key that should unlock the creative abilities of a staff. Variations from traditional practice must not only be encouraged but must also be supported if they are to succeed and defended if they fail. It is especially important that the top executive, whether a president, dean, or department head, recognize that those who dare to experiment must be fully protected even if the venture should fail.

Discovering that some variation is not successful is as important as finding it is successful. Some of the proposals in this volume will be variations from present practice in most teacher-education institutions. How shall the administration view them? Unless the staff, both teaching and administrative, can fully accept such proposals, they should become the experimental variations for continuing study. The increasing and broadening of laboratory experiences, the development of flexible curricula to meet individual needs both in content and time, the participation of students in the planning of the learning experiences—these examples and many others are not in reality new concepts, but they may require variation in the present operation if they are to attain their full value. Every good suggestion in this book for improved teacher education deserves study and experimentation rather than immediate administrative adoption, because this is the key to growth. The best single short measure of the potential of your teacher-education program is: Do you encourage experimentation?

The days ahead in higher education and in teacher education are challenging because of potential enrollments. Thompson's study [2] of college age youth, which has in turn been followed by many area studies of potential college enrollment, indicates that expected enrollment may reach from 160 to 200 per cent of present enrollment, in the foreseeable future of 1970. There is no reason to believe that the enrollments in teacher-education programs will not follow and perhaps exceed present proportions of the total number enrolled in higher education. This means that in many institutions the staff and facilities for carrying out the program will have to be doubled. The maximum enrollment is yet many years away but the increase to that figure will be steady. This provides for a period of time for preparation not found in most institutions that faced this problem immediately following World War II. Thinking through the problems of increased enrollment in the institution and the factors involved becomes a special challenge to administration in the next several years. For example, increasing staff is a matter of supply and selection but, more important than that, it is a matter of orienting and integrating the staff into the institution.

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[2] Thompson, Ronald B., Director, *Estimating College Age Population Trends, 1940–1970,* American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Ohio State University, Columbus, August, 1953.

The first problem to be considered is that of future supply. Many administrative officers are now in the process of finding future staff, encouraging them to continue training, and in some cases helping them so that they may enter the teacher-education program. The secondary schools have found that the promotion of student cadet programs and such organizations as the Future Teachers of America is of value in filling the needs for teachers in their schools. The idea of selective recruitment for staff should be considered by teacher-education institutions for obtaining future staff, as a help in selection, orientation, and integration. Staff members most closely related to the area of need should assist by defining the position, and selecting, orienting, and integrating new staff. This is a continuous program. No single act of an institution is so important as the adding of a staff member.

Many other special problems will have to be met. If, for example, you now have good facilities for laboratory experiences, what provision will you make to take care of twice as many? What about student housing, size of classes, intramural play fields and other recreation activities, and health and personnel services? The executive and the teaching staff will find challenges of an increasing nature in the many over-all and interrelated areas. These must be kept constantly before an institution's governing board and should be given the staff's best thinking. Perhaps the greatest of the problems of providing for the increased enrollment is the problem of financial support, both in tax-supported and in privately supported institutions. All institutions, whether private or public, must join hands for higher education for youth, and all need financial support. Now is a time when confidence in higher education will not allow for jealousies among institutions to reduce the strength and value of higher education in general and of teacher education in particular. Since it is the desire of the people who are correctly informed that will determine the financial support of higher education, all the avenues for increasing understanding of the purpose and work of teacher education should be constantly used by every institution. This program of interpretation to the interested lay public deserves high rank in the tasks to be accomplished.

11

FACING THE FUTURE: CENTRAL IDEAS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION *

The education of teachers, as previous chapters of this book have shown, is undergoing criticism and revision. The members of the profession of education throughout its ranks are concerned with their own qualifications and are co-operating in many efforts to improve their preparation and to assure better initial preparation for those now entering upon the work of teaching. Parents are taking a lively interest in the questions of what kind of education is best for their own families and how to secure the services of teachers who are equipped to provide such education. Lay leaders called upon to take part in establishing and maintaining the schools are raising important questions with respect to the purposes of schools, the efficiency and value of present school programs, and the best means of enabling education to keep pace with the expanding educational needs of today. These developments necessarily have special significance for teacher education.

From this ferment in teacher education constructive suggestions are emerging. Changes are taking place, some the result of criticism and some the result of other social factors, such as the shortage of manpower for all leadership occupations in a time of population growth and increased opportunity. Professional leaders in teacher education are earnestly trying to guide these changes wisely. The previous chapters of this book have set forth policies and programs recommended for teacher-education institutions. While there will continue to be differences of view as to the merits of such recommendations, they are already receiving serious attention in many quarters.

A program of development for teacher education, such as is

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presented in this volume, is no mere accumulation of specific proposals for change. Its orientation toward the future is based upon an analysis of what is desirable in the future, with due regard to what has served well in the past and what is cherished in the present. It is based upon a body of ideas as to the significance of teacher education and the relation of the education of the teacher to the attainment of desirable values in the life of the people in future years. It is well that these central and controlling ideas become explicit, in order that they, along with the specific proposals that flow from them, may be examined and evaluated. The purpose of the present chapter is therefore to set forth this body of central ideas and to indicate how they have had a part in the thinking of the writers of the whole volume.

Teacher Education Influences Public Policy

In a general way educational systems, particularly those conducted at public expense, have always been partially justified in terms of their contribution to the public welfare. Likewise the teacher has always been seen as performing a public function through the educational program. Nationalism in Western political history has generally involved some form of supporting educational program, and frequently teachers have been selected and trained to give expression to that program. With the development of the scientific outlook and political democracy, however, the concept of free schools came to embody the purpose of education for free citizenship and independent civic judgment. Such free schools came to require teachers who showed no political partisanship in the classroom and who possessed no doctrinal or dogmatic limitations upon their powers of thinking and of teaching people to exercise their civic birthrights of freedom. Public policy in free society came to require schools and teachers to guarantee the security of such a society.

Recent years have brought a heightened awareness of the significance of the education of teachers in this respect. The profession of education senses its needs and opportunities in contributing to the realization of the goals of democratic life. A substantial part of the general public recognizes that through public education democratic communities exist and advance. Teacher education is increasingly seen as a vital ingredient of the process of achieving freedom through public education. Perhaps the best evidence of this view of the relation of education and social and cultural development today is to be found in the large amount of public interest, criticism, and discussion directed toward schools and school programs, as well as toward teachers and teaching methods.

It would be a mistake to suppose that Americans are unanimous in this respect. Voices are heard demanding that schools stay out of the business of directly shaping the development of citizens and leave it to the disciplines of learning in the common branches of knowledge to produce their own effects in due time upon the civic behavior of people. Other voices complain that education, at least at certain times and places, has misunderstood the intentions of the founding fathers and fostered types of social development that are, for one reason or another, undesirable.

The very controversial character of civic education is a sign of its great importance. If teacher education is to be viewed as a means of developing the most fundamental potentialities of community life, the issues in this connection must be thought through by teachers and teachers must be free to think them through, without interference from any source. The program of teacher education must be designed accordingly.

Education Is for the Individual Person

The heart of the idea of a free society is the dignity and worth of the individual person. If that ideal is to be achieved, it will only be achieved through the support of a surrounding culture—a body of beliefs, values, and ways of everyday behavior—which is directed toward this goal. Different cultures create different persons. The very humanity of man is defined by his place in a cultural complex which sets certain expectations of him and sponsors certain specific ways of perceiving and molding him.

Education in the United States and under similar national cultures elsewhere in the world is increasingly developing a concept of the individual who may be able to safeguard and extend the life of freedom. Political and social issues involving governments, armies, churches, prime ministers, farmers, bankers, and many other power structures and symbols thrust themselves forward in every day's news. These issues represent conflicts of values held by men. Their resolution depends primarily upon the kinds of men involved and in some cases may seal the fate of freedom for an age. If schools and communities can create men of principle and good will, men whose action is based upon understanding, deliberation, and intelligence, and men skilled in working with each other, there can be hope for the eradication of the prospect of struggle to death and annihilation on this planet. No less a purpose is worthy of the program of teacher education today.

What are the crucial attributes of a program calculated to serve such a purpose? In the first place, it will be an integral program based upon the fact that changes in human behavior are changes in the unitary person, rather than changes supposed to have been induced in one or more discrete parts of a human personality. Schools and colleges have too long and too frequently operated as if it were possible to train a muscle or a frontal lobe of an individual without being concerned with the rest of him. Too often educational programs have assumed that a particular brand of knowledge can be assimilated and mastered or a particular intellectual skill developed, such as mathematical thinking or aesthetic appreciation, without reference to the total functioning of the personality with its shifting controls of fear, confidence, drive, loyalty, and the like. Thus a teaching program to be effective, must be built as one fabric whose distinctive quality and value reside in all of the threads together, rather than in any one color or accent of design viewed as if it were alone. Not only does each particular educational activity of the student have a vital setting in which it finds its significance, but the program of an educational institution is to be evaluated in terms of its total effect upon the student. A program may not be judged to be good in terms of the fact that instruction in a certain subject is offered or a particular procedure is followed or a particular requirement is set. An educational program is necessarily a composite of formal and informal activities on the part of the student. It is to be conceived as a co-operative and single undertaking on the part of those who have charge of it and work in it, frequently including members of the general community who do not see their primary function as education, but who nevertheless have a valuable educational contribution to make.

In the second place, a teacher-education program to support a free society has clear objectives in terms of persons who behave or respond in certain ways, who can do certain things, and who exert certain kinds of influence upon others. The program is designed to produce a certain kind of human product, rather than merely to conduct a tour through certain marked territory for students, letting them make whatever interpretations and draw whatever conclusions they please. This is one of the most delicate and difficult conditions to be met in education, for it involves the very issue of freedom itself. Shall a student have true freedom to learn, without being subject to the selective judgments of his teachers as to what he should learn? When the question is asked this way it answers itself: His freedom shall not be limited by his teachers! Freedom to learn, however, implies opportunity to learn and such opportunity is provided in some necessary degree by teachers. Thus some selection from the world of educational possibilities is inevitable and it should be made with a view to developing in the student the intelligence required for responsible freedom. A free man does not come into being automatically; he achieves his freedom by deliberate and purposeful effort in which he is aided by wise teachers.

It is perhaps anomalous that at a time when communication is so far advanced and group action is so crucial in the world at large, educational specialists should be arriving at a new awareness of the old and seemingly trite observation that education is a total process of change in individual people. The professional teacher deals with the process of bringing about changes of this nature. The final evaluation of the educational program as a whole must be in terms of individual persons acting singly and in their group relations. Teacher education must be so conceived if the general educational enterprise is to come to possess such validity.

There is a comprehensive and practical though searching test of education for the profession of teaching. It lies in the competent and successful performance of the individual as a teacher. The whole process of such professional education, including its general, personal, and strictly technical elements, should therefore contribute to the end in view. It should be continuously guided in terms of the developing student becoming a teacher.

Much has been made in previous chapters of this book of the "student personnel" concept or point of view. Essentially this concept is one to animate the work of every person who contributes to the professional education of the teacher. Special student personnel services of an institution contribute to the intelligent appraisal and discovery of the needs and possibilities of individual students. They will fall far short of effectively safeguarding the individual student, however, if they are expected to accomplish their purpose alone. They require the support of all other parts of the program of the institution in the same way that they support that whole program. No student who is lost to his instructors as an individual person struggling on his own toward maturity and competency can be recovered securely by the administration of some mysterious institutional medicine called student personnel service. The spread of this student personnel point of view among members of teacher education staffs has been wide and rapid in recent years. While the zeal of those who have perfected and introduced specialized services has sometimes been misunderstood, the total program of teacher education is now so developing in its regard for the individual student that there can be no basis for lack of harmony in the pursuit of this objective in the future. There is but one basic objective for all to seek, namely, the development of the competent teacher.

Education for Freedom Is an Experiment

Those who were born around the turn of this century in the United States lived out their childhood and a part of their youth in a restlessly expanding and hard working economy but in a fairly comfortable ideological climate. The moral position of free government seemed good, since human slavery had been abolished and revolution from tyranny had been demonstrated to be desirable and possible, even if it had not yet been accomplished in every possible location. There was little doubt in the minds of ordinary Americans that the onward march of the idea of civic freedom would reach its goal in a matter of time.

What a rude awakening has been wrought by two world wars, the industrial and technological eradication of geographical distance, and the emergence of a vast, new, and precarious balance of power among governments! Even the mammoth strength of the United States of America has at times been challenged to show its intellectual and spiritual claims to hegemony. Its economic and military potentials seem insufficient guarantees of the survival of the idea and practice of human freedom for which this country has been a brilliant symbol in the modern world. Freedom was not so secure as we thought, it is not secure today, nor can its further attainment by any means be assured. Men can try to secure their freedoms, but no known formula will either certainly gain them or guarantee their preservation under all circumstances. The quest for the free life in the community and, indeed, in the individual himself must necessarily involve experimentation, from which, it is hoped, some things may be learned to guide others in the future.

There is no call to disregard the substantial gains man has made in the long, slow struggle for freedom—from ignorance, from hunger and disease, and from enslavement to others. There is no denying that education has played a part in promoting that struggle, as well as in preparing men to use and to safeguard such freedom as they have gained. The goal is far from attained, however, and education cannot rest content with itself while the tide of freedom ebbs so far as it has during our generation.

Education in a free society and for the life of freedom is itself an experiment with consequences of great moment. What is the best educational program to teach men to be free? We do not fully know and we may only hope to find out by experimentation carefully planned, controlled, and appraised. The condition of the times will undoubtedly influence the outcome of the experiment. The best program of education for one age may not suffice for another age. Of only one thing we may be certain: No man can legitimately contend that he has an educational program that will surely work for his purpose. Indeed, there is every reason to believe that the successful program will need to have written into it a considerable degree of flexibility, to enable methods and materials to be adapted continuously to developments as they occur in the process. No standardized program has much promise.

Teacher education, in this as in so many other respects, is the larger program of education in miniature, with something added in the way of sharp focus and practical applicability. Teacher education must be an object lesson, a demonstration to those undergoing it, of the quest for the spirit and the discipline of freedom. More than that, it must provide the prospective teacher with the art and the science of the leadership and the guidance of others in this same quest. What a weight of responsibility teacher-education institutions carry for contributing to the achievement of the way of life of which we dream and to which we devoutly aspire!

There will always be those people who regard a truly experimental program of education as frustrating and defeating. Some may even call it immoral: "Have we learned nothing with certainty about education, up to now?" they will ask. "Is there no security in the ways of our fathers? Can we not take certain educational programs and practices for granted and go on from there? Is not this talk about experimentation only a display of ignorance, if not actually a way of undermining the very foundations of our social cohesion and a threat to the way of life it purports to safeguard?"

Such people miss the point entirely. They seem to assume that changes in education, if and when needed, will automatically become self-evident. Furthermore, they seem to assume that educational experimentation implies complete rejection of the past. An experiment is an effort to learn how to do something with what we have at hand. An experiment in education makes greater demands than ever upon mastery of the past and present culture of man. It seeks to sort over these treasures to see what we can make of them. It seeks to use them to achieve a greater culture for our own generation. There is nothing arrogant or disrespectful about that. Such a search for new insight has been at least modestly the purpose of the prophets of all time. It has been the creative responsibility of every past generation and the very means by which we have learned what we now know.

When experimentation is proposed as a means of discovering the nature of the needed educational program, no haphazard trial-and-error changes are implied. Significant experimentation requires careful delineation of goals, broad planning of revised methods and materials to be used, and responsible evaluation of the results. Suppose, for example, that we were to concern ourselves experimentally with the question of the relation of linguistic competency in a modern foreign tongue to interest in the people who use that tongue and understanding of their problems and their intercultural relationships in the world of today. This is but one rather specific question of importance, among many others, and even this one suggests many facets which could be studied. Each and all of these studies could be designed to yield evidence which would increase the security with which educators shape their policies and conduct their programs. Does beginning foreign language study in early childhood years, rather than later, make any difference of interest in, and understanding of, the foreign culture at, let us say, voting age? Does spoken language facility in the foreign tongue persist as long when learned as an independent technical skill as when accompanied, for learning purposes, by a cognate or parallel study of the literature, customs, political and geographical influence, and economic system of the people concerned? Does persistent spoken foreign language facility tend to develop and keep alive interest in the life of the people? These are only a few of the facets of this one question, which could be the subjects of experimentation, and which serve to illustrate the need to plan experimentation with direct reference to the purposes and values of the educational program as a whole. They also illustrate the direct dependence of teacher education upon the crucial questions of purpose and procedure in the schools where the teachers will ultimately serve.

The reader will doubtless have sensed in previous chapters of this book that the entire analysis of the situation in teacher education and the changes deemed desirable repeatedly implies tension between security and opportunity, between safety and adventure. This tension is found to exist among people who are concerned with guiding and controlling or actually operating teacher-education programs. It may even put in some slight appearance among the contributors to this present volume, as evidenced by positions they have taken and recommendations they have advanced. This will tend always to be so, where experimentation is proposed, for a situation worthy of experimental effort entails conservation of some past or present values, as well as innovation. How far can innovation in education be introduced and yet be evaluated in known terms? Moreover, how far can new methods be employed, for whatever good purpose, when the experimental subjects have to go on living under relatively constant conditions in certain areas of their lives? When does the introduction of new educational ideas in practice amount morally to playing fast and loose with the fortunes and destinies of the learners? These questions will always divide teachers. Some good professional people will be extremely cautious and actually will be unable to experiment; others will only find security in trying new ways of solving the hitherto unsolved educational problem.

We shall have to live with this tension, but we must not let it reduce us to fear and inaction. The invitation to experiment in human relations and human development, even in small ways, calls for faith. We have to believe that ideas properly tested and substantiated can illuminate action in the theater of human affairs and give it significance. We have to believe that men can do better with their destiny than they have done before, if they will but try, not merely to propose, but to find the evidence of the superiority of other ways of managing themselves. We have to believe in the essential moral responsibility of those who control the enterprise of higher education. We have to believe that they will guard and protect the inviolable person of the student in any new way of teaching which they together choose to introduce for experimental purposes. Since life itself, for the self-conscious human being, is an experiment, an adventure into his unknown future days and years in the human community, it would seem that sufficient faith for significant educational experimentation is not unreasonable to ask of even our most conservative colleagues and patrons.

Theory Is Ultimately Tested in the Laboratory

Scientific experimentation implies the laboratory test of theory. Procedures for this purpose are well established in the physical sciences and technologies. The use of the laboratory in scientific investigations pertaining to the behavior of human beings, however, carries no such widely established sanction. It is sometimes argued that humans will not stand still under a microscope and hence cannot be studied scientifically. In the light of what is now known of research method in the general field of biology, this seems a very shallow objection, since "controlled" conditions are difficult to maintain throughout that field, yet significant research has been accomplished. The basic problem in securing laboratory tests of theories of human affairs seems not primarily to be one of methodology, but rather one of purpose. It seems to hurt men's pride to fancy themselves as fit subjects for scientific study and experiment. Can men learn to accept the fact that their own behavior is governed by principle and follows with some regularity patterns of cause and effect? To know this fact and to see its ramifications fully would seem likely to reveal great new horizons of freedom within which man might control his destiny; to deny it would seem a sure way to perpetuate blindness and impotence in the face of the perplexities of the future. We need to get accustomed to a search for an adequate laboratory in the sciences related to human affairs.

In the broad and general sense the community is the laboratory of education. Educational programs are verified by their consequences upon the life of the community in the same way that chemical research ultimately proves worthy as it contributes to change for the better in the standards of life for the people. This concept of the laboratory, however, while valid is too unorganized to be of much help to the chemist. He must have a much more precise situation, designed and equipped for his special purpose at a given time. Similarly, the study of educational problems requires school and community facilities designed, equipped, and perceived as means of testing particular ideas, policies, and programs. Probably the failure to risk the organization of such laboratory situations for true scientific investigation has perpetuated much unproductive educational controversy and retarded the development of educational and social techniques which often seem to have been outdistanced by material advancements in our society. If the invention of social institutions could be encouraged by laboratory experimentation as discovery and invention have been encouraged in the field of physical phenomena, there would seem to be more hope of progress in dealing with basic social and moral issues than frequently now exists.

Every school is potentially a laboratory for its teachers. The education of the teacher is never truly complete. He is constantly presented with what appears to be and is, at least in some respects, a new situation in which his knowledge, insight, skill, and artistry are to be used. Each such situation has experimental possibilities, as well as possibilities for the production of already tested and predictable results. If the experimental possibilities are missed, routine results are attained and the main purpose of the educational process for the learners, namely, the experience of grappling with their own problems of education, is thwarted. Schools can be effective laboratories for the improvement of teaching, however, only if those who maintain the schools will permit, encourage, and where necessary assist in making them serve that purpose. Teacher education therefore requires far more than a systematic pre-service instructional program in college; it hinges upon a complementary community situation in which the teacher may be encouraged as a learner, as a theorist of education in the making, and as a scientific student of the educational aspect of human affairs.

It is the possible scientific significance of every act of the teacher that distinguishes him from the artisan or craftsman and that necessitates both more extended educational qualifications and more latitude in governing his own work. Industry uses thousands of workers whose performance may necessarily be more marvelously skilled than that of the teacher, but no industrial worker carries more responsibility for possibly vital consequences to follow from a particular turn of his hand than the teacher. The education of the teacher must therefore be constantly conducted with a view to laboratory proof or demonstration. The theoretical discipline of the teacher is consummated only in laboratory application. The intellectual breadth and understanding of the teacher fully manifest themselves only in the laboratory practice of his calling. The artistry of the teacher finds full expression only in the laboratory performance which is his mission. Society dare not entrust the vital influence of the teacher upon its children to any whose preparation for that work has not been shown and cannot always be shown to meet the practical test of the laboratory where children, youth, or adults are actually engaged in their own education.

Educational theory is theory of individual and social action. Every man likes to dabble in educational theory, as well he may, for his own learning depends upon his acting upon some theory, implicit or explicit. The problem of the schools is to build more tenable and more widely applicable educational theory than can be turned up by any man for himself. The individual process of learning is really an effort to discover whether productive change in a person can be brought about deliberately and thus in terms of a particular theory. The data of this inquiry are the meanings acquired by the individual, perceived by him to be significant for his own further action, and produced under the impact of an educational program embodied in a class, a school, or a teacher-guided project. The teacher sets up the conditions for such inquiries and observes and interprets their results. The continuous accumulations of such results are the data for the repeated reformulation of educational theory. In an age of large scientific development, such as our own, it has become apparent that educational theories, like theories of the behavior of the so-called inanimate world, not only deserve, but require, to be regarded as proved when experimental evidence has been adduced to support them, but not before. Theory and practice of education can only be productively developed together.

Professional Education for Teachers Needs Vast Scholarly Resources

Education today requires the services of the competent, confident, intelligent, and wise teacher. A person with lesser attainments and qualifications will not suffice. One who meets such a standard bears a large responsibility and deserves professional recognition comparable to that given members of the other learned professions, such as medicine and law. Education for professional qualification to teach must consequently be a most exacting regimen.

Is teaching now a profession? There can be no doubt that many teachers now in service meet the high standards of a learned profession. Many schools, colleges, and educational systems require such qualifications of persons who would join them as teachers. Neither can there be any doubt that many persons now hold teaching appointments without meeting the truly rigorous standards of qualification for a profession. Many educational institutions and systems have apparently been forced lately to engage inadequately qualified persons, either because more fully qualified ones were literally unavailable or because financial or other limitations made it impossible to compete for the services of the best personnel with industry, commerce, government service, or other fields of employment. Nothing is to be gained by arguing that the presence in teaching of a certain percentage of poorly qualified personnel disqualifies the occupation as a profession. The workers in education aspire to professional status for themselves and for their calling and they deserve it. No school can with integrity set a lesser standard when the responsibility of education is so great as it is today. Education for teaching must be conceived and built on a professional basis and the obstacles must be overcome as soon as possible.

Can the fully competent teacher be described with such clarity that his professional education may accordingly be arranged? Do the members of the profession know what they mean by good teaching? Do they have firm convictions and recommendations to offer as to how schools should be conceived and operated? Should they speak with one voice upon such matters if they are to be regarded as a profession?

Educators have presented a disunited front on many major questions of policy and procedure since the time of Socrates. Healthy and sometimes unhealthy disagreements have been publicly aired with respect to the aims of education, the nature of the curriculum, teaching methodology, and school administration. These controversies have frequently become especially heated with reference to teacher education, since the attributes and purposes of the teacher so largely determine the education of the pupils. Such free expression of differing views has sometimes led the general community to infer that the profession of education was immature, confused, and incompetent to speak with any authority, and was therefore no profession at all. Such an inference is wrong on two counts: educators do not disagree on everything important; and unanimity is not essential to a profession.

There is wide agreement among teachers, especially among teacher educators, for example, with respect to the gross discrimination of good from poor teaching. Whatever uncertainty there may be in efforts at sharp definition of teaching skills, in delineating precise methods characteristic of successful teaching, or in stating the approved "content" of the curriculum, good teaching is still recognizable in terms of the behavior of those who are taught. This concept of generally preferred practice of the teaching art is a mark of the maturity of the occupation. In addition, there are other qualifications distinguishing the teacher group from a non-professional occupation. Teachers widely recognize the foundation of their work in the scientific study of man. They are deeply committed to the great ethical and spiritual purposes characteristic of the tradition of humane culture. They are effectively organized to improve and safeguard the quality of their own collective service to the community. These and other facts attest the significance of the occupation and demonstrate the need for a type of professional education which goes far beyond mere "culture" and erudition.

At what level of professional education should teachers be permitted to enter initially upon responsible practice of their profession? Too often this question has been treated as if it were purely an economic one. "How much pre-service education will the traffic bear?" it has been asked. Obviously no profession can be content to have the qualifications of its members determined by unexamined assumptions as to how much money should be spent on them or how much they can be paid for their services. The question is rather as to what types of service the community wants its teachers to render and what minimum qualifications teachers must have to render those services. On this basis there is ample evidence to support the thesis that teachers can be safely engaged with no less than baccalaureate degree preparation which has been directed toward the professional teaching objective. Many emergency programs have provided for the employment of persons with various short course certificates. Frequently these emergency teachers have particular skills that are even superior, but the full professional responsibility can seldom be borne successfully at the outset of their service by persons whose total educational development has been foreshortened to a pre-baccalaureate level. Many people feel that the situation requires that pre-service education for teachers should extend to at least five years after high-school graduation. There is much to support this view, especially if the five years are planned to include a liberal amount of time for supervised internship or practice comparable to the clinical elements in pre-service medical education.

While the minimum length of professional education for teachers is not seriously contested within the ranks of the teaching profession, the nature and content of that education are very controversial. The authors of this present volume have no pat formula for this purpose, although they have expressed their views of the matter at considerable length. They would urge widespread experimentation with teacher-education curricula, with close evaluation of processes and products. One general conclusion has been repeatedly emphasized, namely, that an adequate teacher education requires the resources of scholars from many fields. There appears to be no feasible way to draw a sharp line of demarcation between what is called general education or liberal culture and the studies more directly related to the science of education and the art of teaching. There appears to be no fully tenable distinction between the study of what to teach, whom to teach, and how to teach. Teaching requires intellectual background, social maturity, scholarly interest and skill, and practical artistry, all integrally related as they are developed and as they are applied on the job.

Thus it becomes increasingly clear that the design of a teacher-education program should be conceived and developed through the mutually respectful co-operation of members of higher education staffs drawn from all of the disciplines or fields of scholarship that are concerned with the purposes and processes of education in the community. It is only fair to recognize that many institutions of higher education are engaged in rendering types of service apart from the professional education of teachers and that many staff members of such institutions will regard their primary contributions not to be in the latter field. They should not be expected to accept responsibility for which they have no appetite or in the discharge of which they cannot make a major investment of time and energy. Those who are to be called upon to assist in planning or in giving instruction in teacher education should be ones, therefore, who not only have a lively interest but who also will commit themselves to thorough and continuous study of the problem and who will devote their professional talents unstintingly to the achievement of the goal of providing the best possible total educational experience for the prospective teacher. It has long ago become apparent that academic distinction in a special field of scholarly interest does not, in itself, make an individual an expert on teacher education. The education of teachers requires rich scholarly resources, but it also requires that those resources be applied in distinctive ways to meet the needs of the prospective teacher.

New Issues Invite Revision of the Agenda for Academic Discussion

Since general educational policy in a democratic community is public policy, it must be hammered out in full view of everyone and indeed with everyone entitled to participate to the fullest of his wisdom and understanding. This process is a complex and hazardous one. At times it becomes painful and even wasteful, but it is the only trustworthy way for free men to reach the decisions most basic to their freedom and opportunity. There are many pitfalls to be avoided and methodological problems to be solved if the "great debate" is to be kept on a high level of significance. What is to be done with the man of ill will, or with one who would use free discussion to destroy free discussion? How can selfishness be identified for what it is and surmounted with views representing the common welfare? What are the qualifications of the expert in such public discussions? How is the expert to be used to illuminate aspects of a question which may only be appreciated by the highly informed and the original mind? Despite uncertainties with reference to these and other questions, the distinctive quality of a free society lies in the process of participation of its members.

There is a tendency for educational discussions to become repetitive, particularly as the number of people engaged in them is rapidly expanding. This seems particularly true in relation to the perennial questions of the curriculum, which seldom can be made to appeal to people as emergency questions, precisely because they are so old. For them to be considered realistically and productively, however, they must be redefined in the light of the changed conditions of each generation and each culture.

Today it seems increasingly evident that the issues composing the problem of education are not what many people have supposed they "always were." Many of the traditional issues of education and teacher education are disappearing, under the impact of the results of scholarship and new social and cultural conditions. Some old issues remain in new frameworks of significance. Some new issues are appearing to challenge those who are to chart the course of education. It is important that attention be focused upon the issues most urgently to be considered today and that outdated controversy be put aside. Continued debate, for example, over whether educational opportunity should be extended to all, or whether particular blocks of predigested knowledge should be "required," seems hollow in the light of the general aspiration for democracy in the world. The best insights of contemporary educational specialists as to the nature of motivation and achievement in the learning process necessitate a different approach to such problems. The relation of knowledge to the determination of loyalty and ethical conduct, however, continues to baffle educational theorists and deserves to be the subject of energetic experimentation in a world whose very survival seems to depend so largely as at present upon mass support for morally sound public policy.

Administrative Policy Is Educational Strategy

The approach in the United States to the problem of educational administration differs from that of "old world" or European school systems and universities in two principal respects. The final and official determination of broad general policies in education in the United States has been made the responsibility of special lay boards of control who act for the general public, whereas in Europe such matters are determined either by faculty groups or by government through law or regulation, or by both. Furthermore, in the United States the function of educational administration has been made a matter of specialized responsibility for certain professional officers acting under the direction of the lay board of control, whereas in Europe the educational administrator tends more frequently to be fulfilling a special assignment, sometimes honorary and temporary, as a regular teacher whose major professional objectives lie in the teaching career as a whole, rather than in the special aspect of it concerned with administration. The approach in the United States has been influenced considerably by the experience of American business enterprise, although it contains many elements of the European educational tradition as to its goals.

The fixing of administrative responsibility and the use of the active participation of the lay public both seem to present unique opportunities to American educational institutions to make education a democratic public process and to safeguard its efficiency and adaptability to changing conditions. The principal problem in the use of this approach seems to be one of keeping communication open between all of the legitimately interested parties, such as faculties, students, the civic community, and the related agencies of government, and the assimilation of the contributions of all such parties to decision making in an atmosphere of freedom. The prompt and efficient making of decisions that are both enlightened and represent as fully as possible the interests of all, rather than the privilege or vested power of a few, is the major objective. This is the general problem of democratic government as located in the field of the educational system.

Certain lessons have been learned in all free countries about educational administration. Perhaps the most significant of them is that the success of a policy in actually guiding the work of a group directly depends upon the investment that each member of the group feels he has made of his own efforts and purposes in the development and adoption of that policy. A policy that may appear to be good on all objectively logical grounds, but that has been derived in a mysterious or officious way, without consultation among those who are to be directly affected by it, will tend to be perceived as either having dubious validity or, at best, properly applying only to others, not to one's self.

Another lesson is that wide participation in the development of operating educational policies need not entail equally wide participation in the management of the details of application of those policies. This distinction between policy formulation and policy execution permits teachers to take an active interest in policy matters, without the fear that doing so may involve them in time-consuming and perhaps to them uninteresting analysis of particular cases in the application of the policy. One safeguard needs to be borne in mind in this connection. Frequently it happens that an administrator dealing with a succession of particular cases to be settled finds himself making or necessarily modifying a policy in the handling of those cases. That administrator, assuming him to be committed to the democratic principle of wide participation in the making of policy, will need to have his own policy-making actions reviewed and sanctioned or reoriented by the group.

A third lesson is that the adoption of a policy should liberate those to whom it applies to operate in terms of it on their own initiative and without the necessity of securing administrative approval in every instance of its application. Nothing so quickly destroys the morale of a democratic group as to find that their efforts to regularize their enterprise by securing the clear statement of policies are nullified by an administrator who shows no confidence in the ability of the members of the group to act in terms of those policies, but insists upon personally approving and directing the disposition of every situation that arises.

How do the above principles of educational administration specifically affect the work of those people in our colleges and universities whose major concern is the education of teachers? Apart from their applicability to all such persons in their capacity as members of a college or university, they seem to have a direct bearing upon the development of policies to be followed in the teacher-education program. In the first place, it is evident that each institution should organize itself for the efficient fulfillment of the teacher-education function as one of perhaps many specific educational functions for which the institution may be responsible. This usually means the designation of an administrative unit within the institution, such as a faculty, a college, a school, or a department, with its appropriate administrative official in charge, to have operating responsibility for teacher-education curricula, for the guidance of students planning to enter the profession of education, and for the evaluation of student accomplishment with a view to the award of degrees, diplomas, and credentials. From time to time, it has been proposed to do without such a responsible unit, leaving the operation to be managed in some way by the institution as a whole. Unless the institution has strictly the single purpose of teacher education, this method has little promise, since "what is everybody's business may tend to be nobody's business."

In the second place, such principles imply that provision should be made for advisory participation of various kinds, throughout the institution and probably from the rank and file of the profession and the public. The teacher-education unit needs such advice as may be obtained from representatives of cognate units in the academic fields, in the operation of the general education program, and in fulfillment of various research and service functions of the institutions. Teacher education is not only a legitimate concern, but also a vital interest of many such groups. They should participate actively and continuously in formulating and revising teacher-education policies. Such participation does not and should not imply that these cognate groups must assume the responsibility or be given the authority for the decision and application of teacher-education policy in the institution. Such decision, subject to the approval of the total faculty of the institution and the legal board of control, should rest with the designated teacher-education unit, in the same way that each other unit has its sphere of special responsibility within the operating framework of the institution.

Program Changes in Democratic Education Come in an Atmosphere of Confidence

Doubtless there are many college faculty members and administrative officers who have long since become convinced that teacher-education programs could be improved through certain changes in curriculum or educational procedure, but who find such changes slow to come about, despite vigorous efforts on their part. In fact, it is probably the rare college faculty member who does not wish some change in the work of his institution, at least in those aspects of it which do not directly affect his own particular function. The obvious locus of the difficulty is the lack of consensus among those concerned with respect to what exactly should be done and when and by whom.

From the sociological standpoint, it is in the nature of an institution to conserve ideas and ways from the past. This is no less true of an educational institution than of any other social institution, such as a church or a family. The conservative function of a social institution is not only a fact, but it is also an obligation.

One important function of the school is to serve as a conveyor of the culture without which civilized life would soon disappear.

It is also important to recognize that institutions, particularly those designated as educational, have both the function and the responsibility to produce changes in the culture, under regularized conditions but effectively, failing which they suffer the penalty of their own replacement by other devices. It is their obligation to produce change, just as truly as their obligation to prevent it, which enables educational institutions to survive and to command public recognition and support. A school therefore lives with a perpetual dilemma: What should it conserve and what should it seek to change, and when and how should it do either? A teacher-education institution is once more to be seen as at one of the controlling points in the struggle with this dilemma. What it does shows the way to others who derive their inspiration and a measure of their competency from it.

To recognize the existence of the fundamental cultural dilemma of an institution for teacher education is to perceive the great difficulty inherent in the efforts of members of those institutions to induce changes in their own goals and methods of operation. The appraisal of the extent of this difficulty goes on continuously in a faculty. How urgent is any proposed change? To what extent is a certain type of change in a race against time and catastrophe? If a change is delayed or rejected what jeopardy may attend the institution and its work? How much can an individual allow his personal comfort with conditions as they are to impede changes sponsored by others? These are questions receiving explicit or implicit answers every day. They must be asked and they must be answered, if the institution is to go on with its work and possibly even with its existence.

The important problem in this connection would seem, therefore, to be how to get the questions asked and answered with the greatest clarity, directness, significance, and intelligence. How can all of the parties concerned with such questions be enabled to contribute their greatest wisdom in the necessary consideration of these questions as to the facts of life? Here we are brought face to face with the fact that teachers are necessarily constantly learners themselves. The school for children, youth, or adults is a school for its teachers. For a teacher-education faculty to see the goal of an improved program for its students is only the beginning of the learning process, in the same way as seeing the nature of a problem to be solved in arithmetic is only the beginning of learning for a fourth-grade elementary-school class. We know a good deal about how to arrange the conditions for learning by children and there is no reason to suppose that the essential principles are any different for a group of adult faculty members.

How, then, should a teacher-education faculty approach the problem of making improvements in the program of the institution? It seems evident that they should organize themselves to provide the necessary conditions for their own learning. They will doubtless proceed less dependently than younger and less mature groups do. They need not wait upon some constituted leader to arrange the situation for them. They may find or create their own leadership. They may go after their own resource materials and find their own advisory consultants. They can follow the best practices that they have developed for many groups of their own students. The results of their learning can be put at once to the practical test. They can find out whether they have learned enough and well enough by acting on the results of their learning and locating their deficiencies for immediate correction through more learning. Such a realistic method of evaluation will soon open new horizons for them as it is increasingly doing for student groups who are receiving imaginative guidance in their laboratory experiences in preparation for teaching.

When learning is institutionalized in a school it is for the purpose of systematic provision for the necessary stimulation of the learners, for the provision of learning materials, and especially for the purpose of creating an atmosphere that sponsors learning, guards it against interference from the affairs of general community life, and rewards it with approbation for success. A teacher-education faculty needs all of these conditions for its own learning. How are they to be provided? Some of the conditions can readily be provided by the faculty for itself. Some will only be available through leadership and specific provision by administrative authorities and by the controlling board. Examples of the latter conditions are sufficient time in the scheduled work load, sufficient financial security to relieve them of otherwise obstructive worry, and recognition for the fulfillment of this learning process as a worthy achievement related to faculty status. Perhaps the most important condition of all, however, can only be provided by the sanction of the wider community. That condition is freedom from fear of public reprisal for exhibiting originality and intellectual productivity. The work of guiding the education of the teacher has been shown to be one of tremendous, even almost unbearable responsibility. Those who dare to tackle the problem and are conscious of its fullest significance have to be intellectually and psychologically tough, to say the least. If they have, on top of their own awareness of an awesome task, to suffer the harrying influence of irresponsible, ill-informed, selfish, and personal attack from the general community, it is evident that their security as learners is seriously jeopardized. A wise and consecrated administration and board of control can protect individuals against some such threats, but the effect of the general public atmosphere and attitude toward scholars may only be fully controlled by the public itself. Without public appreciation for significant intellectual leadership, it is impossible to hope that our best minds will choose the career of scholarship and teaching. With it, there is nothing that can stop the continued vitally significant development of the educational system in the service of free society.

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